The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 3, 1891.

The Week.

It was in August of last year that Balmaceda made his first surrender to the Congressional party. The struggle at that time had not gone beyond the methods of peaceful debate in Congress, though even then the tension was so great that a warlike outbreak seemed imminent. The President yielded, however, though it is now evident that he did so only to gain time and prepare himself for the resort to arms which he had determined upon. It has taken but a year, therefore, for the verdict of battle to go as strongly against him as that of parliamentary debate had previously gone. The worst that has ever been said of his opponents is that they were an oligarchical group, representing the wealth and best families of the country, who were unwilling to relinquish the political predominance they had long enjoyed. But this charge may very easily be a hostile version of the fact that they stood, as they claimed, for time-honored and constitutional methods. At any rate, they have won their victory under a banner bearing that device. It must be a humiliating reflection to Americans that the influence of our Government, though nominally neutral, has really been cast throughout upon the side of illegality and despotism. The indications are strong that this was brought about through a secret understanding arrived at by the State Department and Balmaceda. The latter appears to have openly boasted that he had the power of the United States at his back, and to have used that fact, or assumed fact, as a whip to keep his supporters in line, and thus as the means of prolonging the warfare. Two years ago he was the man of all men who brought to naught Mr. Blaine's plans in the Pan-American Congress. His sudden veering about suggests powerful motives which could probably be made public by a Congressional investigation. Mr. Blaine has no reason to desire a repetition of the inquiry into his performances on the west coast of South America; the one of nine years ago was an experience to satisfy any man's ambitions in that line.

According to the Washington correspondent of the *Times*, the *Itata* case is the subject of considerable speculation in Washington "as to whether the new Chilian Government will demand the payment of heavy damages by the United States for interfering with the delivery of the arms carried from the United States in that vessel." The correspondent goes on to say:

"If Balmaceda had been victorious, there would never have been any question raised as to the propriety of the course pursued by the United States, inasmuch as his side profited by the failure of the *Itata* to carry out her mission as well as by the prolonged absence of the *Esmeralda*, which went north to convoy her down and was delayed at Acapulco while waiting for coal. That the action of the United States in not allowing arms and munitions of war to be transported without interference to Chili hampered the insurgents somewhat is undoubted, but it is said by some authorities on international law that they will have no good claim for damages against the United States, for the reason that the *Itata* was not finally seized in the harbor of Iquique, but was given up by the insurgents as the result of diplomatic correspondence. If this view holds good, the insurgents can have no claim, it is said, even if the United States court at San Diego should decide that the original detention of the vessel in that port was unwarranted."

But suppose the *Itata* had been captured on the high seas by the *Charleston*, as Secretaries Blaine and Tracy, with the warm support of the *Times*, were proposing in May last, would not the new Chilian Government have a very pretty claim against the United States at this moment?

The rule established, or sought to be established, by Secretary Tracy in the Barrundia case has borne fruit in another quarter. News comes from Central America that the authorities of the republic of Salvador sent an officer of police on board the Pacific Mail steamer *City of Panama* to arrest five persons, four of whom were native Salvadorians and one an American citizen. This occurred on the 8th of August in the Salvadorian port of La Libertad. Capt. White of the *Panama* refused to surrender these persons. Then the commandant of the port went on board the *Panama* to arrest the men by force, but, the narrative proceeds:

"Capt. White's indignation was aroused at once, and, without waiting to discuss the matter at all, he told the commandant that if he did not leave the steamer immediately, he would throw him overboard. The commandant evidently perceived that Capt. White was disposed to carry out his threat, for he withdrew from the steamer without any further discussion. A short time before the steamer sailed from La Libertad, Capt. White was informed that President Ezeta had been notified of the occurrences on the *City of Panama*, and that he had gone with a large armed force to Acajutla, the next port in Salvador at which the steamer was to stop. The Captain's information was to the effect that Ezeta intended to await the arrival of the steamer at Acajutla, and to take off the refugees at all hazards. Capt. White accordingly determined not to go to Acajutla, and as there was no other port in Salvador at which the steamer was scheduled to stop, he proceeded to San José de Guatemala, arriving August 11."

In examining the Barrundia case we cited the despatches of Secretaries Everett, Marcy, Frelinghuysen, and Bayard, and the textual opinion of Mr. Soley, the present Assistant Secretary of the Navy, to the effect that a merchant ship in the harbors or waters of a foreign Government is subject in all respects to the jurisdiction of that Government unless exempted by treaty. Mr. Soley, in his article on International Law in the 'Naval Encyclopædia,' says: "Public officers may go on board such vessels, their officers or seamen may be arrested on board, writs may be served, and crimes occurring on board, by whomsoever committed, are triable in the local courts." That is to say, if the attempt had been made by the constituted authorities of Salvador to arrest Captain White himself instead of certain passengers on his ship, he could not lawfully have resisted such arrest. This is simply like saying that if the authorities of New York find or believe that the Captain of the *Etruria* has committed an offence against our laws, and if he is in our waters, he may be arrested, and that he has no right to resist arrest; and so *a fortiori* as to any passengers on his ship. But our "spirited foreign policy," for which we are no doubt indebted to Mr. Blaine, has reversed, for the time being, all the precedents of the State and Navy Departments, and has instructed our merchant captains that they are to disobey and defy the jurisdiction of foreign Governments in their own waters, and told our naval commanders that in cases where the merchant captains fail so to disobey and defy, they shall come forward and make good the deficiency to the extent, for example, of forcibly taking charge of a refugee who has not asked their protection.

The reciprocity idea is working as might have been expected, but more rapidly than the most sanguine free-trader could have anticipated. At the Maryland Republican Convention on Thursday, ex-Congressman Mudd announced that he had been thinking a great deal about reciprocity; and, as he evidently did not see why we should trade only with South America, he proposed that the idea should be extended to other countries. It was an absolute necessity for southern Maryland, he declared, that England, France and Germany should reduce their import duties upon tobacco, in return for which this country should reduce its import duties upon their products. These sentiments were embodied in a resolution by Mr. Mudd, which was adopted unanimously by the Convention. It is a remarkable thing to see how eagerly the principle of free trade is swallowed when it is disguised under some other name. "A rose by any other name would smell as sweet," and if the Republicans will commit themselves as enthusiastically to a rational reform of the tariff as they did last week in Maryland, it does not make much difference whether it is done under the name of reciprocity or free trade. It is not impossible that Mr. Blaine may live to see the little fire that he has kindled in the south end of the temple of protection, extend itself until it consumes the whole structure.

According to Mr. Lodge of Massachusetts, whose prophecies are written in the September *Forum*, the dominant issue in the election of 1892 will be the question of the free coinage of silver. The tariff, he thinks, is a dangerous thing for any party to meddle with. The Democrats got up the Mills tariff

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in 1888, and the country was so displeased with them that they lost their majority in the House of Representatives. Then the Republicans passed the McKinley Bill, and "in the skilfully wrought panic which ensued about high prices, the Republican party suffered severely." In 1892, therefore, the Democrats will pass another tariff bill in the House, and the country will be again disgusted with them and vote for the Republicans. From these premises, by a logical process that we are unable to follow, Mr. Lodge draws the conclusions that a majority of American voters are in favor of a protective tariff, and that neither party can make the tariff "a leading issue in 1892 if any more exciting question arises." In the language of another eminent character, "an two men ride of a horse, one must ride behind." The silver question is more exciting than the tariff, and therefore the election of 1892 will turn upon it. The next Congress will pass a free-silver bill, which the President will veto, and on this issue the parties will go to the polls. "Whatever differences may exist within the parties upon this question, the conditions are such that one must sustain and the other oppose it. They cannot both get upon the same platform in regard to it, and it therefore seems inevitable that the free coinage of silver will be the leading issue in the next campaign, the one upon which most popular feeling will be excited, and upon which most votes will turn." At all events, Mr. Lodge concludes, the question of free silver or cheap money must find its final and only settlement at the hands of the voters of the United States. Mr. Lodge's reasoning is not clear, and he fails to consider that the free-silver men among the Democrats may be brought to see that, if they insist upon their scheme, they will split their party and fail of their desire.

The Republicans of Maryland are very much exasperated because the Democrats of that State did not favor the free coinage of silver in their platform. Accordingly, they passed a resolution at their own State Convention, which we take leave to print side by side with the Democratic resolution on the same subject:

MARYLAND REPUBLICAN PLATFORM.

(3.) We denounce the Democracy of Maryland for its meaningless silver platform, while its leaders unite with the Democracy of Ohio and Iowa in demanding the free coinage of cheap silver dollars to cheat labor of its daily wages and the farmer of the value of his grain. The Republican Silver Law is now rapidly increasing the currency to meet the wants of the people, while it guarantees a dollar—silver, gold, or paper—worth 100 cents, honest money, the same every day in the year, in the pockets of our people.

MARYLAND DEMOCRATIC PLATFORM.

(9.) No State can coin money, or make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts. Congress only can coin money and regulate the value thereof. The dollar is the unit of value in the United States. The power of Congress to coin gold and silver ought not to be so exercised that gold coin or silver coin will become a commodity and so disturb the operations of trade, but in such manner that the dollar in gold coin and the dollar in silver coin shall be of equal exchangeable value in all the markets of the United States. Any attempt to depreciate by legislation either of these metals ought to be deprecated and condemned.

It is very clear that both of these platforms mean the same thing, and run to the same conclusion, which is, that the Government ought by some means to maintain the gold standard. Keeping all kinds of money at par with each other means keeping them all at par with gold. Yet the Democratic platform expresses this intention more directly and decisively than the Republican. The latter merely recites that "the present silver law guarantees a dollar—silver, gold, or paper—worth 100 cents, honest money, the same every day in the year." A captious man might ask what kind of 100 cents are here referred to, there being a difference between 100 cents silver and 100 cents gold, if we look at their metallic value only. Moreover, the silver men contend that 100 cents in their favorite metal is just as "honest money" as 100 cents in gold. The Democratic platform declares flatly that the dollar in gold and the dollar in silver should be kept at equal, exchangeable value. If there is any difference between the two platforms, it is in favor of the Democrats—in this particular instance.

Some of the newspapers seem to be trying to make a sensation over the practice of accumulating gold followed by the Sub-Treasury in this city. One of them represents that Secretary Foster has artfully induced or cajoled the New York bankers who had occasion to send money to their Western correspondents, to deposit gold or gold certificates, while the Treasurer slily remitted greenbacks, thus increasing the supply of gold in the Treasury by nearly $12,000,000 in two months. The simple-hearted bankers, having just found out the game that was being played upon them, are now indignant at Mr. Foster's trick, and, according to this authority, have obliged the Treasury to ship West at least half the gold it receives. The motive of the New York bankers in thus driving gold away from this city is not explained, nor is it easily explainable. It does not appear that there is any occasion for excitement, surprise, indignation, or remonstrance in this matter. The facts are simply that the express companies have a contract with the Government for the transportation of money, by the terms of which the Government is charged a much lower rate than other customers. The business of the Government is so large that this is a perfectly justifiable proceeding. Accordingly, when a Western bank sends an order to New York for money to help move the crops, the New York bank, instead of sending the money by express itself, takes it to the Sub-Treasury and gets it sent by Government. If the Sub-Treasury had insisted that the banks must deposit gold if they wished to avail themselves of the Government's low express rates, it does not seem that the bankers would have had much reason to complain. They were under no compulsion to hand over their gold to the Treasury, for they could have kept it and remitted notes instead at a very trifling expense. The idea that the New York bankers suddenly "got their eyes open" to the nature of this transaction early in the week, is certainly refreshing. Such guileless simplicity is not commonly attributed to this astute class of men, and the whole story is more amusing than credible.

Lieut. Foote of Washington, whose address upon the abuses in our pension legislation we commented upon recently, has followed up his words with deeds that may have important consequences. With some other old soldiers, he has organized the "Society of Loyal Volunteers," the object being to compel a revision of the pension system, to the end that only those who are actually in need shall receive money from the Government. This end is to be attained to a considerable extent through voluntary and unpaid work on the part of members of the new society. It is proposed to have branches, if necessary, in every county, each branch to keep a list of all pensioners residing in its county, showing the amount of the payments and the claims which have been granted. In cases of fraud the society is to coöperate with the Government in securing the cancellation of the pension and the conviction of the guilty persons. Each society is to recommend guardians when requested, to act without compensation for the families of soldiers, and to employ attorneys, at its own expense, to protect the rights of those who are unable to protect themselves. It is impossible to say whether this scheme will succeed, but it would be very encouraging if it should. What is unfortunate about it is that it should have been so long delayed. The Grand Army has now grown very strong, and will regard the new society with hostility, it is to be feared, for it is formed to do what the Grand Army ought to have long since undertaken, but has hitherto neglected.

Another test of the color prejudice, not on geographical lines, was had in Philadelphia on Wednesday week at the annual meeting of the Patriotic Order of Sons of America, an organization whose object is stated to be "the perfecting of American institutions," the point of discussion being a motion to strike from the constitution the word "white," by which colored citizens are barred from membership. A majority report was presented in favor of the change, but the minority of the Committee vigorously defended the constitution's existing form. The vote when taken stood 58 to 36 in favor of admitting colored men, but it required a four-fifths vote to make the change. A strong plea for the black man was made by the president of a "camp" of colored men organized in Philadelphia. "Slavery," said he, "is a thing of the past, thank God, and now all we want is, that you put us in an equal position, not socially, but that we may be able to uphold equally with you our American institutions, for they are our inheritance. Try us, and you will see that

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our color will not rub off and that you will not suffer for your pains; and when the old flag is assaulted, either from nations abroad or from strife within, none will rush to its defence quicker than we. We will protect your homes; we will protect everything American. We will stand shoulder to shoulder with you in every advance you may make for yourself." The delegates who refused to be convinced by this argument came from States like Colorado and Illinois, where pleas for "negro rights" in the South are heard yearly from every Republican stump.

The report of the Government scientist in charge of the microscopical station for meat inspection at Chicago calls attention to the good work done by women at the station, and dwells upon the opportunities for women in investigations of that description. This ought to occasion no surprise. Members of the superior sex have often alleged, as proof of their superiority, that women are incapable of the highest scientific generalizations. Many recent achievements in science go to show that she is rapidly acquiring the power to generalize with the best. However that may be, no one can deny her deftness and delicacy of touch or keenness of observation, and these are the qualities most in demand in microscopic research. Her advantage over the heavy-fingered lords of creation in the former particulars is, in fact, indisputable, and the proverbial quickness of a woman in detecting minute variations in another's dress might easily pass, it would seem, into special skill in observing abnormal appearances in the slides under a microscope. That instrument has come to play such a prominent part in medical and biological research that, if women develop aptitudes in its use, it must mean a considerable enlargement of their opportunities for work. It might even happen, on the theory of ex-Speaker Reed in regard to women's influence on an election where the tariff is involved, that they could get the barbarous McKinley taxes on microscopes reduced or abolished.

The English papers are commenting upon an event that illustrates in a striking manner the almost invincible resistance opposed by custom to the demands of scientific theory. It is maintained by some persons that the wheels of the Roman chariots were five feet apart, evidence for this view being furnished by the ruts to be found in the stone gateways of the camps on the Roman Wall. At all events, Stephenson found that five feet was the distance between the wheels of the wagons that were in use when he built his first railway, and the "standard" gauge of 4 feet 8½ inches, the distance between the rails, was therefore adopted by him—just as the railway carriage was a frank adoption of the coach body. But the great engineer, Isambard Brunel, a man who fairly captivated commercial bodies and fascinated Parliament by the brilliancy of his genius, declared that a gauge of seven feet would permit of a greater speed with less oscillation, and would also provide far more comfortable accommodation for passengers, and the Great Western Road was constructed according to his designs. It is undeniable that the latter end was attained to a degree that is now for ever hopeless, for we shall no more abandon the standard gauge than we shall adopt Volapük as a language; and that greater speed was in the first place attained by the passenger trains on the Great Western Road than by its rivals. But it was found that the expense of the broad-gauge railway was much greater than that of the standard gauge, and that it was difficult to provide axles of the required length without a dangerous diminution of their strength. For a time the battle of the gauges was doubtful, but it was not long before the standard gauge showed that it must prevail. Its greater cheapness in moving freight overcame whatever advantages the broad gauge had in transporting passengers. The number of miles of broad-gauge railway has steadily decreased of late years, and now it is announced by the Chairman of the Great Western Railway that on the 20th day of May next all that remains of the system in England will come to an end, as it has already done in this country. Mr. Brunel's prestige was, perhaps, not greater than his abilities would explain, but we can hardly go to the length of the *Daily News* in saying: "It is merely the irony of fate that, after many triumphant struggles with physical difficulties and many brilliant conquests, he should be popularly remembered only by two splendid failures—a Brobdingnagian steamship and a Utopian railway."

The budget for 1892 submitted by the Argentine Minister of Finance shows receipts estimated at $44,740,000 in gold and $16,720,000 in currency. The estimated expenditure is $27,640,000 in gold and about $51,000,000 in currency. If currency is taken as worth one-third of its face in gold, the currency revenue would be equivalent to less than $6,000,000 and the expenditure to $17,000,000. Hence a surplus of about $6,000,000 in gold may be anticipated. The expenditure includes the cancellation of $15,000,000 of paper money, but seems to make little provision for the interest upon the public debt. But, of course, the first step towards solvency lies in the direction of reducing the excessive supply of "legal tenders." The imports for 1890 were valued at $142,000,000, those of 1889 having been $164,000,000. The exports for 1890 were $100,000,000, or about 40 per cent. more than in the previous year. The Minister predicts that in the two years 1891 and 1892 the exports will amount to $240,000,000 in gold, and that the value of the imports will not be more than $145,000,000, making a balance in favor of Argentina of $95,000,000. In the figures for imports the value of railway material is not included, for the strange reason that it is paid for by European capitalists. It is difficult to believe that the anticipations of the Minister of Finance are not too sanguine as to the future extent of Argentine commerce. The sudden check to the inflow of capital cannot fail to compel marked changes in the habits of the people. A country of less than 5,000,000 inhabitants that imports in a single year from France alone over $10,000,000 worth of wines, and $2,500,000 worth of perfumery and "notions," while it cannot pay its debts, is in a bad way. We learn through the *South American Journal* that the moratorium act has been repealed by the Senate, which has also voted to create the new Bank of the Argentine Nation. If the capital of this bank is to consist, as proposed, of an issue of $50,000,000 of notes, the proposed withdrawal of $15,000,000 by the Government would scarcely improve the situation. The reports are, however, so confused that it is impossible to speak positively at present in regard to the outlook.

In this connection may be mentioned a plan for the collection of duties upon imports into the Argentine Republic and for the payment of interest upon its debt, that has much to recommend it. The transfer from Buenos Ayres to Europe of the funds required to meet this interest, which is practically all payable abroad, is a matter of some difficulty and cost, as well as delay. If customs duties, or a part of them, could be collected on merchandise at the ports of shipment in Europe through the Argentine consular agents, a considerable saving might obviously be effected. This suggestion led to a further one, that the duties might be collected through the sale of stamps, to be used in the manner devised by Mr. Wells for the collection of our own internal revenue, and finally a still broader scheme was developed. It is now proposed to establish in London an institution to be called the Foreign Customs Bank, which shall have the especial function of collecting duties for the various States that have large payments of interest to make in London, and of applying to those payments the duties so collected. The existing financial agencies of these States may not look with favor on a scheme of this kind, which would deprive them of their customers, and there are some features in the scheme (which is known as the Holmes-Malcom plan) that are objectionable. To combine the operations of a "Real-estate Trust" with the functions of such a bank does not suggest sound finance. But the principal idea, that of collecting revenue where it is to be disbursed, is ingenious and not impracticable. Unfortunately, the borrowing States are generally afflicted with corrupt governments, the members of which would view with alarm the transfer of the lucrative business of the customs service to foreign shores. But borrowers sometimes have to submit to terms which they dislike, and it is not at all impossible not only that customs duties will be pledged for debt in the future as at present, but that their collection will be transferred to the residence of the creditor.

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THE SILVER QUESTION IN NEW YORK.

THE attitude of the Democratic party in New York as to the silver question is now the most agitated and agitating question in State politics, overtopping the question who shall be nominated to the several State offices. Indeed, the question who shall be elected to these offices depends very much upon the kind of platforms adopted by the two parties on this particular matter. If the public are convinced that business interests require the maintenance of the gold standard, they will vote for the party which best represents the gold standard. It is to be remarked that the present revival of activity in Wall Street dates from the very day on which President Harrison said, at Albany, that he felt himself pledged to keep all the different kinds of money in the country of equal value with each other. Nor can there be any doubt that the President's speech was the cause of the turning tide. Until then a cloud hung over the financial horizon which not even the magnificent crops, the increased railway earnings, and the alluring prospects of foreign trade could dissipate. Stocks would not rise, bonds would not sell, business would not move except in the hand-to-mouth way that had characterized it ever since the great Baring disaster of last year. The cause of such anomalous conditions was nothing else than the doubt which overspread the commercial heavens—the doubt as to what would be a dollar six months or a year hence. The few words which the President let fall lifted this cloud for the time being They gave the assurance that the gold standard would not be abandoned without the utmost possible resistance on the part of the Chief Executive. While this was not an absolute assurance, it created a general belief that the basis upon which business and bargains now rest would not be changed during President Harrison's term of office. And this was just enough to remove the weight that had rested on the spring of business.

The Democrats are not usually as good observers of the undercurrents of political life as the Republicans, but they can hardly fail to perceive the coincidence between President Harrison's Albany speech and the revival of confidence in commercial circles. That this coincidence was a real causal relation, we have not the least doubt. The renewed activity in Wall Street was only a symptom of the improved condition of trade in general. It was the outward and visible sign indicating that investments would be safe for some considerable time at all events. The Democratic party in New York has been generally wise on financial questions. It has been fortunate in having leaders who understood these questions and had the courage of their convictions. Seymour, Tilden, and Manning represented the best traditions of the party, and their influence kept it out of dangerous bogs as long as they lived. The question now is, whether those traditions have lost their weight and those illustrious leaders their authority. We shall soon see.

Meanwhile the *Tribune* reprints the speech made by Gov. Hill on the silver question at Brooklyn on the 23d of September last, from which the inference is drawn that the coming State Convention of the Democrats will "squint toward free silver coinage." Of course we cannot predict what the Convention will say, but it is not exactly fair to Gov. Hill to say that his Brooklyn speech squints towards free silver coinage, unless the same may be said also of Senator Sherman's recent speech at Paulding, Ohio. Each of these speeches shows some tenderness for silver, as is due from a careful politician who does not know how far away he may be from a Presidenial nomination. Both of them favor international bimetallism. The only important difference between the two is that Gov. Hill attacks, while Senator Sherman defends, the present Silver Law (the Act of July 14, 1890). Gov. Hill says that "this Act puts a heavier strain upon our resources than free bimetallic coinage without foreign coöperation would do, and obstructs our progress towards that end, which we all desire to reach—the free coinage of silver upon a proper international ratio." He went on to tell what he considered the proper international ratio to be, deciding in favor of 15½ to 1, because that is the ratio at which the larger part of the silver coin of Europe has been struck. There is nothing in the speech which warrants the belief that Mr. Hill is in favor of free coinage without international agreement. His remark about "the heavier strain upon our resources than free bimetallic coinage" may be correct or incorrect as a matter of opinion. It does not commit him to free coinage, while everything else in the speech commits him against it unless it shall be undertaken in concert with other nations.

It scarcely needs to be said that Gov. Hill's views are not in any case conclusive upon the Democratic party of New York. We have given thus much attention to them, in connection with the coming convention, because Gov. Hill is the only important personage in the party as to whom some doubt has been expressed.

RAILWAY CONSOLIDATION.

PRESIDENT C. P. HUNTINGTON of the Southern Pacific, in the current *North American Review*, under the title "A Plea for Railway Consolidation," states his well-known view that the remedy for all our railroad ills is the amalgamation of American roads into one gigantic corporation. There can be no doubt that consolidation would help the public in removing many of our present abuses. There would be no more secret rate-cutting, the source of all our dangerous and unjust discriminations. The different shipping interests could be adjusted fairly towards each other. A most important result would be the saving of the present wastefulness in operating expenses, brought about by the competition of a number of roads, each having equipment and facilities enough to handle the traffic which all are now carrying. Since railway charges cannot be made materially higher without loss to carriers as well as to shippers, the question of economy in operation is a most important one, whether it be secured through consolidation or not. President Huntington puts these possible advantages none too strongly. It is fair to say that under existing conditions the railways need protection as much as the public.

But Mr. Huntington leaves untouched the question which the Grangers will be sure to ask. The "accomplishment of this [consolidation into one controlling corporation] would reduce the cost of transportation to the minimum, which would *admit* of the lowest possible rates to shippers and passengers." True enough; but would shippers and passengers receive these lowest possible rates? In short, allowing all that may be said in favor of consolidation, can we do without competition in some form among carriers any more than among traders? This is not to say that things should be left as they are; that we should continue to forbid the pooling of railway traffic, for example, for regulated pooling would not stifle rivalry but would change it from rates to facilities. The destruction of all competition, however, would be another and much more serious matter.

Some of the minor points made by President Huntington do not seem well taken. "We have yet to learn," he says, "of a single instance where it has been considered advisable, either by those financially interested or by the public, to disrupt a system thus consolidated, or to make any part independent of the others"—which leads one to wonder whether he has forgotten the Wabash. "Lean ores," he continues, "should be moved at a small profit over actual train expenses, but this cannot be done under the present law." Fixing the rate of transportation for precious ores on a sliding scale, according to percentage of silver, is a not uncommon thing on Rocky Mountain roads. After consolidation, "when a fair return upon invested capital has been received, the people, through the courts, can prevent rates from going up, and thus restrict the earnings of a railroad to reasonable figures." Courts of law interpret statutes, but do not make them. Does Mr. Huntington mean that our judges would take the active supervision of railway matters of their own original motion? If not this, then, apparently, the only alternative would be Federal ownership, or, at the very least, such a decisive control as would amount to the same thing. The theory that a fair return upon invested capital can be a measure of the rightfulness of railway tariffs, is one which can easily be pressed to a dangerous extreme; for a rate is primarily a commercial question, and is to a great extent independent of the after results upon the bonds and stock.

But it is not necessary to follow the theory to the end, for there is no consolidation of the kind in sight. Mr. Huntington is not quite definite enough about this point. He quotes the well-known instance of the New York Central, made up of a dozen little local roads forming one continuous line of rails between New York and Buffalo. But to argue from this to a consolidation of competing roads is to confuse an important distinction. It might

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be even praiseworthy, from the public point of view, to unite the New York Central with the Lake Shore, since the exigencies of geographical position admit of a close alliance in any case; but to amalgamate the New York Central with the Pennsylvania, for example, might not deserve the same praise. Precisely this latter kind of amalgamation is the most difficult of accomplishment; so much so that the most ardent anti-monopolist need have no fears. A striking instance of this truth is furnished by President Huntington himself. He cannot agree with the Missouri Pacific and the Atchison people as to the values of their respective properties for the purpose of consolidation; and yet these three systems touch each other at many vital points; could, if combined, "dictate rates" in their common territory (that is, could get all that commercial conditions make possible); could, if involved in a war of rates, almost destroy each other. If to these statements we add that the control of these three vast systems rests with but half-a-dozen men, it is obvious that we have a railway situation exceptionally favorable for consolidation. If a few men of experience and ability cannot, under such circumstances, come to an understanding with each other as to what share of a consolidated corporation each shall have, it is not necessary to say that the immense multitude of shareholders of all our railroads, scattered throughout the United States and Europe, will not easily agree as to the values of all these properties, no matter how many arguments favorable to the theory may be put forth.

THE PROPOSED ADIRONDACK PARK.

THE special report of the Forest Commission of New York, which, although rendered to the Legislature last winter, has only recently been circulated, is a very well-considered document. After reviewing the legislation and attempts at legislation that have taken place, the Commission refers to the unanimous approval with which the proposal to establish a State park in the Adirondack region has been received, and proceeds to consider the conditions of the undertaking in detail. It is unnecessary, they say, to lay again before the public the familiar results of scientific forestry. It is to be assumed that the desirableness and the necessity of maintaining areas of forest are beyond question, and the present investigation relates to the method by which this result may be best attained.

The principal questions that the Commissioners put to themselves are four in number:

(1.) Is the establishment of a State park in the Adirondack wilderness feasible?

(2.) If it be, what shall be the area of the park?

(3.) What lands shall be embraced within the park?

(4.) How shall the lands, not now owned by the State, that ought to be included in the park, be acquired?

The area of the Adirondack Wilderness, which in earlier times was estimated at 12,000 square miles, has now been reduced by clearings to about 5,600 square miles, or 3,600,000 acres. This includes lakes, ponds, and rivers, overflowed lands, and some clearings and settlements. It also includes many outlying parcels of land, which, although wild, would not fall within the limits suitable for a park. Of this wilderness the State has now acquired title, under various tax sales, to but a comparatively small portion, some 765,000 acres, and these lands do not lie in a compact mass, but are interspersed among lands held for different purposes by individuals and corporations. It is plain that these scattered parcels do not of themselves constitute a park, especially as many of them are in the outlying regions above mentioned. Two methods have been suggested by which an area suitable for a park might be acquired by the State. One method is for the State to condemn the lands required, under its right of eminent domain. The Commissioners are of opinion that an attempt of this kind would arouse hostility from so many interests that it could not be carried out. The other method is to acquire the lands by purchase, which would be practicable if the owners would sell at a price which the State could pay. Unfortunately, these lands are no longer to be obtained at moderate prices, and some of them are not for sale at all. The owners of lands no longer allow them to be sold for taxes, and the expense of purchasing the whole area required would probably be greater than the Legislature could be induced to incur.

It becomes necessary, therefore, in the opinion of the Commission, to adopt a modified form of State proprietorship. The clubs, and hotels, and wealthy individuals that have purchased lands in this region for pleasure-resorts of various kinds, have no purposes that really conflict with those of the State. A prominent representative of the owners of these private reserves stated their case as follows:

"It does not appear to me that there is any good reason why private clubs or associations having in view precisely the same objects which the State has in founding this park, should be in any way interfered with so long as they assist in preserving the fish and game, and cut lumber only in such a way as to preserve the forests. Should any club or organization at any time undertake to clear the land by wholesale, for making charcoal or for any purpose other than a small, necessary clearing for cultivation, then the State might, with propriety, step in and prevent their so doing."

It appeared that if certain privileges were conceded to them, these owners would be unanimously in favor of the park. It was also intimated to the Commission that if the park should be extended around the private reserves, the present somewhat vexatious regulations forbidding trespassing would be abolished.

A different class of interests was encountered in the case of the lumber and wood-pulp companies. With them the question was one of a purely business character. They have bought land and erected mills, and very properly insist upon making something out of their investment. As to these parties, the Commission protests against the injustice of a wholesale condemnation of their industry. In many cases it is carried on in accordance with the precepts of forestry, and the tendency to cut timber only in such a way as to secure a renewed growth is decidedly increasing. At all events, these industries are too powerful to be attacked. If the park is to exist, there must be a compromise of some sort, which the Commission does not regard as difficult of attainment.

In the first place, much land owned by lumbermen in the heart of the wilderness could be obtained advantageously by the State in exchange for the outlying tracts which it owns and which are not suitable for park purposes. Much land can also be had by the State upon the condition that the "soft" wood growing thereon—pine, spruce, hemlock, and tamarack—may be cut when of a prescribed size and under State regulations. The heavy timber upon lands already owned by the State might also be exchanged for lands desirable for the park. In this way large tracts of land could be gradually acquired by the State at a comparatively small expense, most of which could be met by the sale of timber. As already stated, the owners of the private reserves are willing to allow their lands to be thrown into the park upon conditions that are not regarded by the Commission as unreasonable; and, these owners being quite as much interested in preserving the forests as the State, and the preservation of the forests being the main end, there is no reason for disagreeing with the report. As to the first question, therefore, the answer is that the establishment of an Adirondack park is feasible. We may add, also, that forestry gives no countenance to the sentimental idea that trees should never be cut down. Sooner or later they will fall and decay if left to themselves, and their removal when mature defeats none of the objects for which the park is required. It is to be remembered that lumbermen take out only the "soft" wood; so that after they have "lumbered" a tract the inexperienced eye would not discover that they had been at work.

As to the area of the park, suggestions have been made ranging from 1,000,000 to 4,000,000 acres. The smaller area would not be sufficient to produce much effect upon climate or rainfall, and would not include all of that portion of the Adirondack region covering the mountains and lakes at and around the headwaters of the rivers. Probably 2,300,000 acres would be as little as would answer the purpose, but we do not observe that the Commission limits itself to any fixed number. That, however, is the area indicated by their map, and if from this be deducted 57,000 acres covered by water, 64,000 acres of improved lands, 341,000 acres of private reserves, and 512,000 already owned by the State, there remain about 1,326,000 yet to be acquired. For the location of these lands, the map accompanying the report must be consulted; but, as the Commissioners say,

"The park as here projected includes the chief lakes and headwaters of the principal streams fed by the Adirondack forests; the highest mountain peaks and ranges; the most desirable portions of the wilderness for sanitary and recreative purposes; the best localities for fish and game preservation, and the larger part of the virgin forest of the Adirondacks."

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Upon the whole, the showing of the report is hopeful and gratifying.

THE FRANCO-RUSSIAN DEMONSTRATION.

PARIS, August 17, 1891.

IT is impossible to overrate the importance of the manifestations which have taken place in Russia on the occasion of the visit and the review of the French fleet at Cronstadt. The visit had been premeditated for some time, and the French Government was fortunate in the choice of Admiral Gervais, who was to represent France in all the circumstances attending such a demonstration. Admiral Gervais is a cool man, a man of much tact and sense, and it must be said to his credit that he never lost his head during all the ovations paid to him, that he did not indulge in any chauvinistic tirades, and never pronounced one of those unhappy words which sometimes have disastrous consequences. M. de Laboulaye, who had been for some time our Ambassador in St. Petersburg (he is the son of Laboulaye, well known in America and author of 'Paris en Amérique'), had just retired from the diplomatic service for family reasons, but, much to his own inconvenience, he was asked to return to St. Petersburg, to present Admiral Gervais and the officers of the fleet to the Russian Emperor, and to enable Admiral Gervais to profit by his great knowledge of the Russian court and of Russian society. The new Ambassador who had been appointed, M. de Montebello, would have been of little use in the difficult circumstances of the French visit.

Between them, M. de Laboulaye and Admiral Gervais succeeded in maintaining the correct character which the visit was to have; but their wisdom and moderation detract nothing from the spontaneous outburst of political passion which has characterized the visit. There is nothing in it which ought to surprise any one who has followed the development of events during the past few years. Ever since the Congress of Berlin, it had been evident that Russia and Germany had become completely estranged, and that, notwithstanding the differences in their political institutions, Russia and France were, so to speak, instinctively drawing together. It was thought for a long time that there could be no serious understanding between the Emperor of Russia and the leaders of Republican France; people remembered how angry the present Emperor, who was then the Tzesarevitch, was with the lawyer who dared to say to his father, who was going down the steps of the Palais de Justice, "Vive la Pologne, Monsieur!" Only a few weeks ago the "Marseillaise" was a forbidden song in Russia; but political and national interests are stronger than all prejudices, all personal likes or dislikes. Gen. Le Flô, who was for a few years French Ambassador at St. Petersburg, and who was himself *persona grata*, was once talking with the Emperor of Russia on the situation of Europe. The Emperor is a man of few words; he merely said to him: "Make yourselves strong" (*Faites vous forts*). This was clear enough; if France were strong, the door might be open to negotiation; as long as she was not strong, there was nothing to be done with her.

Under the Presidency of M. Grévy, the political antipathy arising from the difference of institutions remained very marked, though France was making herself stronger by degrees, and though her army had become every day more formidable. M. Grévy had no personal prestige, and the painful incidents which brought about his forced resignation had for a time a detrimental influence. The choice of his successor was a fortunate one, and, ever since he has been President, M. Carnot has behaved in the most proper manner, and has gained the esteem of every government in the world by his unimpeachable attitude. At the same time, for a while, his position at home left diplomatic relations as they were before, on account of the extraordinary instability of the Cabinet. It seemed almost impossible for a foreign minister to become acquainted with the French Ministers, as they were changing every three months. The extraordinary popularity of Gen. Boulanger was another disturbing element; nobody could see clearly what would be the future of France if Gen. Boulanger became master of the country, and for a moment it seemed not only possible but almost probable that he would be a new Bonaparte. Since the emotion caused by the Boulangist campaign, the Republicans have felt the necessity of giving more stability to the Administration, and it was almost a watchword during the last session to avoid, at any price, a ministerial crisis. M. Constans, who is the man of the day, the man who instituted the trial of Boulanger, and who conducted the last electoral campaign, is more firmly in power than any Minister has ever been for twenty years.

We have now, therefore, better conditions for entering into close relations with foreign Powers: a respectable, dignified President, who is essentially what the English call a safe man; a lasting Cabinet, having at its head a man who, whatever may be said of him, has shown much intelligence and firmness. It was natural that France should reap the benefit of such a situation. The renewal of the Triple Alliance furnished the occasion. Notwithstanding the downfall of Crispi and the visible signs of some reluctance in the public opinion of a part at least of Italy, the Alliance has been renewed for five years. England has not positively joined the Alliance, she has kept entire liberty of movement. Lord Salisbury has repeatedly declared that he had not much faith in alliances when they were not in exact accordance with the interests and feelings of the people at the moment when they were to bear their immediate results; at the same time, England has given a sort of moral support to the Triple Alliance, in so far as this alliance means the preservation not only of peace, but of all the existing territorial arrangements. There has been much talk about the equilibrium of the Mediterranean, which means practically that England will see with satisfaction whatever tends to increase the importance of Italy, as opposed to France. An English sailor, a man well known in the military circles of England and France, said candidly the other day to a French friend: "I am very fond of France [which means that he is fond of going to Paris], and I wish her well; but you must consider two things: in spite of all the revolutions, the personnel of the French navy has remained almost the same; it is admirable, it has traditions. As for Italy, the personnel of her navy is very inferior, but she has some magnificent ships. If the French made a *coup de main*, and seized the whole of the Italian fleet and manned it with their own men, they would become too formidable even for us." Do not believe that this is an idle dream; there was a real panic created in Italy at one time by the rumor of an attack on Spezia.

There are certainly two currents in England. There is a new French current formed by all who are drawn towards the French democratic ideas; but there is always the old current, the traditional attraction of England towards Germany, who has been for centuries the soldier of England on the Continent, her ally against the omnipotence of Louis XIV. and Napoleon. There was a French party even at the time of Napoleon; it was composed of a small number of men, some very remarkable, but they had no real influence on events, and they did not leave a permanent mark in history. What would be the policy of England in case of a new European struggle? Strong as may be the sympathy for France, it would be counterbalanced by the sentiments which England openly professes towards Russia. Russia is to her an "Erbfeind": she meets Russia everywhere—in Europe, in Asia; her sentiments, her principles are at utter variance with Russian culture, if you may give the name of culture to what is almost the reverse of Occidental culture. It is therefore not to be wondered at if the review of the French fleet at Cronstadt really excited more uneasiness in London than in Berlin; certainly more than in Vienna.

In the face of the constellation, "Northern Germany, Austria, Italy," there rises the new constellation, "France, Russia." The feelings of popular enthusiasm which have manifested themselves in Russia have been reciprocated in Paris. Everything Russian is the order of the day. The Grand Duke Alexis, who came here incognito to take quietly the waters of Vichy, has much difficulty in escaping the indiscretions of the reporter. It is difficult to judge at a distance of the value of the Russian enthusiasm, of the degree of control which the Government could possess over this enthusiasm in a given emergency. But, if we have a right to an opinion on what is going on under our own eyes, it is impossible to deny that the enthusiasm for Russia which is now dominant here, is really a new form of what used to be called chauvinism: it is the expression of a sentiment of revolt against the standing and formidable menace of the Triple Alliance, as well as an expression of the belief in the increasing strength of France. It is needless to say that such a sentiment may breed many illusions; it is obvious that the desiderata of France and Russia have nothing whatever in common. France made war against Russia for the protection of the Turkish Empire, but this war was purely dynastic; it gave to Napoleon III. the alliance of England and the position among the sovereigns which had at first been grudged him. But even at Sebastopol, after so long and terrible a struggle, as soon as the armistice was signed, the French and Russian officers fraternized and fell into each other's arms.

"Major a longinquo reverentia." France really knows little about Russia, and this ignorance allows her to have great expectations which may perhaps never be realized. It is impossible not to be somewhat uneasy at the outburst of unconscious sentiments which have no direct object, and which, if you analyze them carefully, have for their foundation only common fears and common hatred. The course of civilization is altered. France makes me think at times of a train which is off the track. Occidental culture implies naturally some harmony among all the Occidental nations. There is really much more in common between France and Germany than between France and Russia; but the conditions of the peace of 1871 have been such that France has been thrown, so to speak, into the arms of an Oriental nation, and that the two extremes of

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European civilization and European barbarism have found themselves united.

ITALY ON THE SEA.

ITALY, August 15, 1891.

UNTIL quite lately the Italians were more than satisfied with, they were proud of, their navy; and when we remember the condition of decrepitude into which the fleet had fallen during the ten years following on the disaster of Lissa, so that in 1876 Italy scarcely counted in the list of naval powers, they may be pardoned for some elation when, ten years later, they found themselves in possession of a navy that became at once the admiration of Europe, heard their *Duilio* and *Dandolo*, their *Italia* and *Lepanto*, praised by "intelligent foreigners" as the biggest and swiftest battle-ships, carrying the biggest guns in the Old World or the New, and saw themselves placed third on the list of naval powers. But during the last four years, when England, Russia, and France have been reinforcing their fleets with such extraordinary energy, each nation striving to bring up the strength of the navy to a level with its own special requirements, keeping in view the relative strength of rival powers, the spectacles through which the Italians view their sea-girt shores are not of that rose-colored hue which gave enchantment to those former years, and they begin anxiously to inquire whether their navy is really in a condition to fulfil its several duties, which, though not as vast or as far-reaching as those of the British navy, are quite as vital, if not more so, for the supreme necessities of home defence. Italy has few colonies or foreign dependencies to protect, nor has she, alas, commerce to protect on foreign seas; but she has to defend an enormous seaboard, the unprotected towns and villages on her coast, to prevent the debarkation of a hostile fleet, to coöperate as a defensive weapon in all the operations of her land forces, to cover the flanks of her army in the valley of the Po, to debark masses of troops in support of these, and be able at any moment to contend against a powerful foe who would probably make a simultaneous attack by land and sea.

"The first necessity of a United Italy," wrote the great Napoleon, "is to become a great maritime power, in order to maintain the supremacy of the seas, to defend her numerous islands and her coasts"; and when we look on the map of Italy, the duties of her fleet appear at once to be of a most serious nature. The coast line of France is but 2,535 kilometres; that of Italy is 6,341 kilometres, or 3,424 geographical miles. Her continental coast line extends from the confines of France at Nice to the Magra, 314,000 metres; from the Magra to Torre Scilla, 1,055,554 metres; from Torre Scilla to Cape Leuca, 731,460 metres; from Cape Leuca to the Austrian possessions on the Adriatic, 1,112,110 metres. Then come the chief islands: Sardinia, with 1,098,147 metres, and Sicily, 1,016,635, Elba, and a host of coast islands, bringing the number of miles to be defended up to the aforesaid 3,424 geographical miles.

Nearly all Italy's great cities are on the sea, if we except Turin, Milan, and Bologna. The great railway arteries of Italy run for a long extent along the sea coast, exposed to the shots of the enemy's fleet. France, England, and even Austria, with her ports at Trieste and Fiume, can communicate with every point of their territory independently of the sea; but if Italy were to lose dominion of the sea, she would lose in great part that of the land. Hence, for Italy to possess a powerful fleet, and a fleet absolutely adapted to meet all these requirements, is a question of "to be or not to be." The once favored design of girdling peninsular Italy with strong works has been entirely abandoned, denounced as useless to repel maritime attacks, and quite beyond the power of her finances, even in those halcyon years when she believed in surpluses and voted for all the proposals for armament on land and sea. To secure the combined action of the fleet and the field forces, to perfect the mobilization of her armies of reserve, is her objective point, and for this a thorough understanding between the services is her constant aim. Without this, say her military authorities, "an enterprising enemy might throw her mobilization schemes into extreme disorder, make bold raids along her coastline against unprotected centres of commerce, arsenals, military districts, manufacturing districts, depots; while, again, he might debark considerable forces at almost any point of the extensive coastline and thence move either to effect temporary objects or to conquer the country." And as early as 1832 Baron Félix de Beaujour wrote: "An attack by the gulfs of Naples or Tarentum only strikes Italy at her extremities, but an attack by the mouths of the Arno strikes at her heart and cuts her in two."

All these considerations were present to her naval chiefs when they laid down the lines of her naval programme with these chief objects in view. Admiral St. Bon, Secretary of the Navy between 1870 and 1876, who occupies the same position to-day, must be regarded as the creator of the present Italian navy. Finding that it was not possible for the young country to build the same number of ships as her maritime rivals, that she could not compete with them in the amount of tonnage, he affirmed that, autonomy, speed, and power being the desiderata, her best policy was to create a fleet of a few great battle-ships, larger, stronger, swifter, and more heavily armed than any afloat, to insure secure bases, such as Spezia, Venice, Taranto (his successor added the Island of Maddalena), then an attendant fleet of rapid cruisers and torpedo-boats. Seeing that Italy was at that time almost devoid of metallurgic industries, it was notorious that the preparation of her war fleet would engender a vast outlay; but the nation, especially after the seizure of Tunis by France, has never until the present moment permitted the word "economy" to be uttered in the discussion of her naval budget. But now that "economy to the backbone" in every department of the State is, of dire necessity, the order of the day, people are beginning to count the cost of the enormous ironclads and to doubt whether the vast sums have given a relative gain.

Of her first-class armored ships, the *Sicily* was launched the other day at Venice with great éclat, in the presence of the King and Queen of Italy and of the British squadron, but the national enthusiasm was not at all equal to the overpowering joy manifested at the launch of the *Dandolo* and the *Duilio*. The enormous cost of the monsters—$6,000,000 each, on an average—is now reckoned up; also the time that elapses between the day they are laid down and their final armament. The *Duilio*, laid down in 1873, was launched in 1876 and armed in 1880. The *Dandolo* took eleven years to complete; the *Italia* and the *Lepanto* the same. Her ten biggest battle-ships have cost the nation $47,357,355. We doubt whether any more such monsters will be built when the *Sardinia* and the *Re Humberto* are completed.

Another question is much agitated just now. It is remembered that France and England have splendid ports, with deep waters, grand arsenals, enormous supplies, and powerful means of reinforcing their coal stores; and numerous mercantile ports and docks able to receive their battle-ships. In this respect Italy is sadly inferior; if we except Spezia and Venice at the extremities of her seaboard, she has no docks capable of receiving these vessels, and, when they are anchored off her ports, the distance of her coal deposits is a serious consideration. It is now affirmed that the coal endurance of her big battle-ships has been considerably exaggerated. As early as 1888, an ex-sailor, George Molle, pointed out these and many other defects, and above all things dwelt on the unwisdom of trusting the offensive power of her big battle-ships to a few monster guns whose mechanism is so complicated, and whose hydraulic gear is so delicate, that the slightest injury would disable them and render the vessel useless for offence, nay, expose her to destruction, especially since the quick-firing armaments have come into fashion and the enemy can pour a hail of bullets on the turrets, towers, and open ports. He severely criticised the insufficient armor of the big battle-ships, and precisely in 1888 wrote strongly in favor of the smaller second-class battle ships such as the *Stromboli*, the *Vesuvius*, the *Fieramosca*, the *Etna*, and the *Bausan* (torpedo-ram). This author dwells much on the necessity of home manufacture, showing that it is one thing for England and France to vote enormous sums for their navies, and a "quite other thing for Italy," since in the former countries the money does but change pockets, passing from that of the taxpayer in general into the hands of employers of national labor and of the working classes employed, whereas in Italy the sums voted go out of the country.

These opinions of course now gain great value from the Hamilton programme and Lord Brassey's treatise on the "Future Policy of War-Ship Building for 1891." Lord Brassey, in noting how necessary it is, in framing a ship-building programme for the British Navy, to provide for strengthening the fleet with vessels of *every* serviceable type, quotes with approbation the policy so well described during the recent debates in the Italian Chamber by Signor Morin, and warmly approved by Brin, then Secretary of the Navy and by no means in accord with St. Bon on many vital points. "I fully share," said Brin, "Signor Morin's opinion that the eclectic system which we have adopted of composing our fleet of vessels of various types, and of endeavoring to make each type as perfect as possible, is the best solution, and I see with pleasure that this is no longer disputed by any one." The Italians have a profound belief in the use of torpedo vessels for coast and harbor defence, but, finding the smaller torpedo boats unseaworthy, they incline to the bigger vessels of 150 tons and over. In this last month of July twelve new torpedo vessels have been ordered at three private shipbuilding establishments, and the gunboats *Castor* and *Pollux*, transferred from the war to the naval department, are now registered on the royal navy. This year will also be completed three war-ships of the type of the *Dogali* of 2,800 tons, three of the *Tripoli* type of 1,200 tons each. As none of the constructions decreed in the programme of 1890-91 have been abandoned, it is difficult to see how the expenses of the naval department can be diminished. These, in the estimates for 1890-91, stood at nearly seven millions of dollars for ordinary expenses; of

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this, nearly a million was assigned to the mercantile marine or merchant service, which is only now beginning to recover from the state of decline verging on decay into which it had fallen between the years 1870 and 1885, when the law granting shipping bounties to ocean-going vessels was passed. In that year, the inquiry into the causes of the decline of the merchant service was concluded, and it was found that Italy occupied only the sixth rank as regards steam vessels, and the fifth as regards sailing vessels. Considering the total tonnage, a constant diminution was shown since the year 1876, when it was 1 078,369 tons, falling in 1880 to 999,196 tons, in 1885 to 953,419 tons, and in 1889 to 824,474; but as one ton of steam is equivalent to three tons of sailing vessel, the diminution is not so significant. From the first of January, 1886, to the end of December, 1889, the Italian Government paid in shipping bounties close upon three millions of dollars, of which over two millions represent the repayment of duties levied upon the importation of materials for construction, the rest bounties for the transport of coal and bounties for construction and repairs of Italian-made boilers.

On the whole, the advantages to be gained by a cordial alliance between Italy and England on the seas would appear to be greatly on the side of Italy; but England and Italy have no clashing interests and many in common on the Mediterranean, so that the deficiencies of the younger nation may be in great part supplied by the greater and older mistress of the seas. If Italy can balance her income and expenditure, and this without any addition to her overburdening taxation—if peace be ensured by the quadruple alliance, and on the other hand by the dual alliance between France and Russia—there is little doubt but that in ten years United Italy will become a great, strong, and flourishing naval power. Since the publication of the articles in the *Times* on the American navy in April, the world seems now to look to America as the nation which will probably have the last word to say on naval construction, but the fact remains that until some great naval war proves which of the armored monsters can best defend and offend, all the new models are so many experiments. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

MASSACHUSETTS AND THE LOBBY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If your readers find me excessively tedious, they will please to remember that it is you who are the "agent provocateur" in furnishing a continual supply of facts for the explanation of which my theory gives the master key. Thus, the interesting article in your issue of the 20th, on the Federal Judicial Establishment, is one long plea, indirectly, for the presence in Congress of some national authority, responsible for administration, having power to prepare and submit necessary legislation, and forced up to it both by party opposition and by individual criticism. What sort of an agency is the committee system, with its pulling and hauling of private and local interests, and its manipulation by the lobby, for regulating the even-handed administration of justice, upon which so much of the welfare of the country depends? If the Federal Constitution preserves us, at least for the present, from an elected judiciary, no one principle, on the other hand, calls more loudly for the admission of the Cabinet officers to Congress than the organization of the courts. What a different office would be that of the Attorney-General, and what a different class of men it would attract, if it carried the responsibility and the honor of such work as that!

But that which appeals to me most is the article on the anti-lobby law in Massachusetts. I think you overrate its effect, and it is important that it should not be overrated, as it is the beginning, as I believe, of a struggle as fierce as that with slavery itself, and which, in the long run, must end in one of two ways, either the defeat of the lobby, or the overthrow of our institutions, and a reduction to anarchy, civil war, and military despotism. The lobby is equally rampant around Congress and every State legislature, but inasmuch as, so far as I know, the first definite stand against it has been made in Massachusetts, it is important to determine exactly what has been accomplished. In the first place, a large number of the interests registered as employing lobbyists (speaking from memory, I think sixty) have failed to make returns of expense as required by law. A list of them has been sent to the Attorney-General, but whether they will be prosecuted remains to be seen. If they are, it will show an administrative energy which is by no means the rule in the State. But, even so, the legal fine, $100 to $1,000, is quite inadequate as a deterrent, so that only those who have nothing to conceal will conform to the law, while those who have will take the risk, and, in the remote contingency, pay the fine. Again, by no means all those engaged in lobbying were registered at all. In the matter of the Redistricting Bill, one of our leading members of Congress did some very active and notorious lobbying without being on the official list. In another case a member of the Legislature was bent upon forcing through a law relating to labor. A leading manufacturer from the country came to the State House to oppose the law on behalf of himself and his fellow-manufacturers. As his opposition began to make itself felt, he was fiercely pounced upon by the member in question with the inquiry whether he was registered as a lobbyist, and, upon replying in the negative, was threatened with arrest, the member apparently forgetting that he was himself lobbying in the grossest manner. Then there is all the lobbying to which you refer outside of the State House, including the rigging of nominating conventions.

The fact is that lobbying is so bound up with the mode of doing business in our legislatures that all attempts to control it from the outside are like trying to stop a stream by damming its mouth instead of diverting it at the source. The first effective step will be to take the business out of the committee-rooms to the floor of the houses, with public discussion, personal leadership, and individual responsibility. This can be done in the Federal Government by bringing the Cabinet officers upon the floor of the houses, and this would have an immediate visible effect, because there is a chain of administrative responsibility from the top down, with one man in every place. But in the State there is another and serious obstacle to be overcome. The chief executive officers, corresponding to the President's Cabinet, are elected separately from the Governor, and are independent of him and of each other. There is no unity of action, no subordination, and no responsibility, and this is why State administration is everywhere so inferior to that of the general Government. In the State, therefore, there is a double task to be accomplished, the change from the election of the executive officers to their appointment by the Governor, and then their admission to seats in the Legislature.

Gov. Russell, in his inaugural message last winter, took strong ground as to the lobby and the government of the State by commissions instead of by the nominal Executive, but the Legislature not only paid no attention to his recommendations, but went rather in the other direction. The campaign this autumn is to be a purely State campaign, and ought to turn upon State issues. It will depend almost wholly upon Gov. Russell whether it does so, or is made a mere stalking-horse for the Republicans and Democrats, with a view to the Presidency next year. Gov. Russell cannot, however, insist upon his views without assuming an attitude of more or less hostility to the Legislature and its traditional methods of business, and that requires moral courage in a high degree. Of one thing, however, I am sure: that the man who, with adequate physical and intellectual qualities, shall have the courage to go to the people and point out to them that the condition of State affairs is all wrong, explain to them how they can be made right, and ask for their assistance in making them right, will achieve a success and a reputation which will astonish himself and the country. G. B.

Lake Placid, Essex Co., N. Y., August 22, 1891.

CHARLES KINGSLEY AND THE NEO-PLATONISTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your notice of Dr. Martineau's 'Essays, Reviews, and Addresses,' in No. 1363 of the *Nation*, appears the following sentence: "There are two admirable studies of Charles Kingsley's writings, and that on his 'Alexandria and Her Schools' will, let us hope, send some to it who did not know it in its day."

We hope that no one will go to Kingsley's book expecting to get an accurate representation of the teachings of the great Neo-Platonists, for he will be badly disappointed. The idea of writing the book in question, or rather the series of lectures of which it consists, did not originate with Kingsley. The subject was selected not by him, but for him, as he states, and it is plain that he performed his task perfunctorily and reluctantly. He had little or no previous acquaintance with his subject, and "read up" for the occasion. His work should not be quoted or referred to as an authority. The fact is, that Kingsley was not qualified to apprehend the doctrines of Plotinus, Porphyry, Proclus, and other philosophers of the same exalted type. He was, I presume, a fair Greek scholar; but something more—much more—than a grammatical knowledge of Greek is required to enable one to grasp the ideas of thinkers of the Platonic School.

Another of Kingsley's works—'Hypatia'—shows conclusively his inability to adequately appreciate and understand the objects or teachings of the so-called Neo-Platonists. His portrayal of the famous Hypatia, the brilliant and accomplished successor of Plotinus in the Alexandrian School, is in many respects a mere caricature. Thos. M. Johnson,

Ed. *Bibliotheca Platonica*.

Osceola, Mo., August 24, 1891.

NOT SHAKSPERE, BUT JONSON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Allow me to call your attention to an inaccuracy in the review of Mrs. Moulton's

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'Stories Told at Twilight,' which appeared in the *Nation* of August 6 (p. 107). "The Stories," says the reviewer, "in other respects recall yet another line of Shakspere: 'Oh! so soft, oh! so sweet!' are they." The line thus partly quoted is not Shakspere's, however, but Ben Jonson's, and may be found in the fourth of the "ten lyric pieces" forming "A Celebration of Charis" in 'Underwoods.' The sentiment and melody of the stanza in which the line occurs are so exquisite that I cannot refrain from copying it in full:

"Have you seen but a bright lily grow
Before rude hands have touched it?
Have you marked but the fall of the snow
Before the soil hath smutched it?
Have you felt the wool of beaver?
Or swan's down ever?
Or have smelt o' the bud o' the briar?
Or the nard in the fire?
Or have tasted the bag of the bee?
O so white,—O so soft,—O so sweet is she!"

F. B. W.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., August 26, 1891.

Notes.

ALBERT SOREL'S 'Madame de Staël' is to be the next translation in the "Great French Writers" Series, published in Chicago by A. C. McClurg & Co.

S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, announce for early publication 'A Study of Greek Philosophy' by Mrs. Ellen M. Mitchell, with an introduction by W. R. Alger.

Not to be outdone by Mr. Howells, Mr. C. D. Warner has made a collection of his stated contributions to *Harper's Magazine*, and it now appears under the title, 'As We Were Saying' (Harpers). The book is extremely tasteful in its get-up.

Mr. Andrew Lang has in preparation a volume of angling sketches which will be published in the fall by Longmans, Green & Co., with illustrations by Mr. S. Murdoch Brown. Encouraged by the success of the "Blue" and "Red" Fairy Books, Mr. Lang has prepared for the same publishers a "Blue Poetry Book," also to appear this fall, and to contain the poetry which the editor judges best fitted for juvenile readers.

Mr. Austin Dobson has enlarged and rewritten the biographical study of Hogarth which he prepared for the Great Artists Series some ten years ago. The new edition will be elaborately illustrated, and will appear early in the fall. Mr. Dobson is also editing Goldsmith's 'Citizen of the World' for the Temple Library, published in America by Macmillan & Co. A selection of Mr. Dobson's poems is in preparation to fill one volume of Heinemann & Balestier's new "English Library."

We have more than once noted that the volumes of the Tauchnitz Series were chosen wholly to please the taste of the travelling British, and that only such American authors were included as had been taken up in London. It is a pleasure to see that the new English Library just mentioned is to be managed with more regard for the taste of American travellers. Mrs. Deland's 'Sydney,' Mrs. Burton Harrison's 'Anglomaniacs,' and Mr. James's 'A London Life' were among the first thirty numbers of the English Library, and among the volumes in immediate preparation are Mr. Howells's 'Shadow of a Dream' and 'Tuscan Cities,' Miss Wilkins's 'Humble Romance,' Mr. J. C. Harris's 'Uncle Remus' and 'Mingo,' Mrs. Burnett's 'Surly Tim,' Mr. Warner's 'Winter on the Nile,' and a new novel by Miss Blanche Willis Howard. The managers of the new venture have been well advised in copying the handy form of the Tauchnitz Series. Heinemann & Balestier have also undertaken a Continental edition of the *Review of Reviews*.

Mr. Ruskin's 'Political Economy of Art' assumes in the new "Brantwood Edition" of Charles E. Merrill & Co. the title, '"A Joy for Ever,"' which really restores the text furnished the lecturer by the Manchester Exhibition of 1857. Mr. Norton, in his introduction, relates that he was in Oxford in daily intercourse with Mr. Ruskin at the time when the lectures were being written, and remarked then (and resisted as he could) the tendency which was to deepen in Mr. Ruskin, to turn "from the pleasant, open fields of nature and of art into the rugged path of political economy." The introduction is otherwise instructive as giving a glimpse of Mr. Ruskin's almost humorous spirits in private letters, which were ere long to be exchanged for depression to the verge of aberration. Like all the early volumes, this one can be reread with profit by reason of the lapse of time.

Mr. J. M. Eustace's 'Notes on Trigonometry and Logarithms' (Longmans, Green & Co.) is, contrary to what might be inferred from the title, not only intended for learners having no previous knowledge of trigonometry, but is especially designed for those who wish, if possible, to become acquainted with that science without the aid of a teacher. It is a systematic treatise on plane trigonometry, treating, as a book designed for those who have no tutor should treat, with rather more than ordinary fulness all the matters usually included in text-books designed for use in high schools and colleges. A more than usually large number of examples is worked out and explained with great thoroughness, and the number of examples, mostly taken from university and civil-service examinations, given for the student to exercise his ingenuity and test his knowledge, is extraordinarily large. The answers alone, at the end of the book, occupy seventeen pages. A change in the title might rightfully increase the profit of the publisher even if it offended the modesty of the author.

Peter Paul & Brother, Buffalo, N. Y., publish a large 8vo pamphlet of 32 pages, in stiff covers, beautifully printed on fine paper, bearing the title 'The Circle of Trigonometric Functions.' The author is Mr. William S. Waith. Its object is "to assist in memorizing the mutual relations of trigonometric functions." Mr. Waith's system is extremely ingenious, and well worth the attention of those who have occasion to make much use of trigonometrical formulæ. The flexibility, if we may so call it, of the trigonometric functions is so great, the interchanges and substitutions of which they are susceptible are so multifarious, and the ability to handle them with rapidity and accuracy is to the professional mathematician, the astronomer, and the engineer, a matter of such vital importance, that time is not wasted in looking at them from any novel point of view in which they may be placed, provided it is not purely arbitrary. Mr. Waith divides the circle into six equal sections. In each of these he writes the name of one of the six trigonometric functions. These follow each other in a certain order around the circle, so that, according as two or more functions are in adjacent, alternate, or opposite sections, their algebraical combinations into formulæ can be inferred. It is a system of mnemonics for plane trigonometry analogous to Napier's rules in spherical trigonometry, which, though once taught in all schools in which spherical trigonometry was taught, are now almost obsolete.

The compiler of 'Chicago and its Environs: A Handbook for the Traveller' (Chicago: Louis Schick), speaks deprecatingly of his own work, as a first essay, and promises an entire overhauling, with the introduction of much new matter. He is really, however, deserving of much credit and wide patronage, having abundantly demonstrated his fitness for his task in all that relates to the proper conception of a guide-book. The information he brings together is lucidly arranged and indexed; there is a good folding map of the city, with a great number of views, some of which, being photographic, are very ornamental, while the woodcuts are fairly good. The historical portion has not been stinted. A blemish of no consequence is an occasional lapse in the English idiom, as when we read of the (sleeping-car) "servant, mostly a negro." Some condensation, too, could be effected. But, we repeat, the book is to be praised.

From the practised hand of Mr. E. Poste of Oriel College we receive the first English translation of 'Aristotle on the Constitution of Athens' (Macmillan). It is written in clear and appropriate English, is happy in its turning of technical words, and is handsomely printed. But here commendation must end. At too many points the translation, which is often of the nature of an exegetical paraphrase, gives a false idea of the original, at least to a reader unfamiliar with the Greek; it abounds in explanatory words and phrases imported without warning or designation into the text, not a few of which are misleading, and in the rendering of numerical expressions in particular it goes astray again and again.

A most admirable and attractive critical text of the 'Constitution of Athens' can now be had for less than half a dollar. The edition promised by Kaibel and Wilamowitz-Möllendorff (Berlin: Weidmann) has just reached us. It is dedicated to Bona Fortuna, and, with its terse and eloquent Latin introduction, its appendix containing fresh material, and its full index, is a model of careful and independent editing. Mr. Kenyon's great skill in making out the readings of the papyrus is amply and generously recognized: his detractors, characteristically enough, are charged with ignorance and envy. An elaborate commentary is to follow in due time, in which questions relating to authorship, sources, language, style, and text will be treated.

The Shaksperian rarities offered to the city of Birmingham by the late Halliwell-Phillipps in his will at a fixed price did not find a purchaser in the Corporation, and the collection is now on deposit awaiting disposal to any chance comer at £10,000. In 1887 the owner issued, in a limited edition, a 'Calendar' of the several articles, and it has seemed advisable to issue a second. This has been done, under the editorial care of Ernest E. Baker, and with the imprint of Longmans, Green & Co. The work has been enlarged by annotations, many of them derived from memoranda written in the books by Halliwell-Phillipps himself. The 'Calendar' is, therefore, all the more worthy of a place on the shelves of public libraries, and it may tempt some American of means to transfer the collection to this side of the water.

We have received from Macmillan & Co. the first part of a new 'Dictionary of Political Economy,' the whole to consist of twelve or fourteen parts of 128 pages each, which are to appear at intervals of about three months. The plan of it includes a statement of the position of Political Economy at the present time, references to history, law, commerce, and business in their economic relations, articles upon the leading topics in the science, and biographical and bibliographical features. To judge from this part, the matter is somewhat fresher than a good deal of that

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in Lalor's Cyclopædia, which was a little too extensively drawn from French sources, but the general plan resembles that of the American work. It is not easy to strike the happy mean, if any there be, between a dictionary and an encyclopædia, and some of the longer titles in the part of the new dictionary that has been completed, such as "Agricultural Community," are not at all adequate. In several cases ("Abolitionist," "Banking") the view taken of the subject is rather insular. In fact, for most purposes we incline to think that a regular encyclopædia, if special books of reference were not at hand, would be preferable to this dictionary. Space is allowed to the expression of opinion that would be better reserved for facts, especially as the opinions are in a number of instances that we have examined quite open to question.

The latest discoverer of the identity of the Man with the Iron Mask is a certain Captain Bazeriès of the garrison of Nantes. One of the newspapers of that town gives an account of his researches and their result, which is copied with no expressed reserves by the *Temps* of August 7. It appears that M. Bazeriès has succeeded in translating some despatches of Louis XIV. and of Louvois relating to the mysterious prisoner. These despatches are in a cipher that consists of figures only, spaced by dots, and which until now has baffled everybody's ingenuity. They are said to throw light on many points hitherto obscure in the history of the campaigns of 1691 and 1692 in Piedmont. It was in 1691 that Gen. de Bulonde, unnecessarily and against the orders of Catinat, raised the siege of Coni, and compromised the success of the campaign. He was really a traitor, but for some reason Louis XIV. wished that he should not be put to death. He was shut up at Pignerol, and the order for his imprisonment contained a provision that he should be allowed to walk about during the daytime, but that he should always wear a mask. At what time he was removed to the Bastille does not appear.

Dr. S. Mendelsohn, author of the work on the 'Criminal Jurisprudence of the Ancient Hebrews' which we reviewed last week, writes us, with reference to a charge which we took notice of without adopting: "I deny that I have ever 'made free use,' or any use whatever, 'of a work on the subject by Dr. Fassel, published at Vienna,' or at any other place, and denounce the statement to the contrary as a malicious falsehood."

—The September *Century* has a quiet tone, in the main, befitting the emergence from the dog-days. An exception is the shrill note emitted by the parties to the controversy over the question of the treatment of Confederate prisoners at Camp Morton, Indianapolis. The rejoinder to Dr. Wyeth's former article is by W. R. Holloway, and is followed by the doctor's counter-rejoinder. The debate consists mostly in opposing cold official figures to flesh-and-blood experience, with a probable element of error on either side. It seems a pity to revive all this at this late date, except that it is never a pity to establish the truth of history. Mr. Lodge's paper on "The Distribution of Ability in the United States' is based upon statistics which he admits to be capable of yielding only approximate inferences; his comparisons of distinguished citizens of native with those of foreign birth are probably as little vitiated as any. President Seth Low has a short but weighty paper on the government of cities, in which the practical knowledge of the ex-Mayor and the ideals of good citizenship cherished by the educator are in perfect harmony. E. W. Howe writes of "Country Newspapers" with an agreeable mingling of fact and humor, though neither is very sharply marked; his article will scarcely serve to inform those who are ignorant, or to amuse those who are keenly sensible of the humorous possibilities of his subject. Francia and Ghirlandaio figure in the Italian Masters series. Mr. Kennan's article will fall in with the prevailing interest in things Russian.

—"Much Ado about Nothing" is the latest of the Abbey-Lang series of Shakspere's comedies; given first place in the September *Harper's*, it presents no divergences of moment, either in the illustrations or comment, from the characteristics that have marked the handling of the foregoing plays. Beside this literary feature of the number, may be mentioned the first instalment of unpublished letters of Dickens to Wilkie Collins. Furnished by Miss Hogarth and edited by Laurence Hutton, they go little below the surface, mainly serving to show again the huge store of animal spirits possessed by Dickens; an occasional note seems to suggest the application of the spur when the spirits flagged. The well known Paris correspondent of the London *Times* mounts the tripod with an immense deal of ostentation, to tell "the simple, real, and undisguised truth" about "Germany, France, and General European Politics." He has "long been tormented by the desire of telling" this, and has "been stupified at seeing that . . . not one [European diplomat] has fixed a steady eye on the mysterious horizon," the secrets of which only a De Blowitz can divine. After these flourishes one is scarcely prepared to find it all coming down to some commonplace remarks on the political situation in France, and an alarmist prophecy of what will happen to Austria after the death of the present Emperor. The article on "Chinese Secret Societies" has the quality of timeliness, and that on "The New York Chamber of Commerce" a local interest. Walter Besant's second article on Plantagenet London is copiously illustrated, as is also F. Hopkinson Smith's impressionist paper on Constantinople. The serials take up nearly all the rest of the number.

—In the September *Atlantic*, Prof. E. P. Evans singles out Max Müller as a type of the dogmatic philologist who declares that speech is, and for ever must be, a barrier between man and beast. Testing some of his more extreme dicta by fact, the Professor concludes that the philologist as such is incompetent to solve the problem of the origin of language, and must "resign this field of inquiry to the zoöpsychologist." The paper would have been a very complete presentation of the question could it have taken account of Prof. Garner's late experiments to determine and ape the language of monkeys. Many will find great suggestiveness in Mr. John Fiske's article on "Europe and Cathay." It asks the question why the discoveries of the Northmen made no stir in Europe. The answer is to be found in the conditions prevailing on the Continent at the beginning of the eleventh century and for 400 years afterwards. Everything faced Asia. Commerce and geographical explorations spent their forces in that direction, and it was not till the Ottoman Empire rose like a wall between Venice and Genoa and the Orient, where their foreign trade lay, that the genius of Columbus learned from travels to the East to strike out westward. Even then, of course, it was only in order to find access to the Orient from behind, as it were. John Burroughs has "A Study of Analogy" which is half argumentative, half oracular. His arguments are directed against other people's oracles, but they are as fatal against his own. Other articles deserving mention are Prof. Woodrow Wilson's, on "The Author Himself"; and "Courts of Conciliation," a Norwegian contrivance to lessen litigation, by Nicolay Grevstad. Kipling's story is in his usual vein.

—Prof. Royce's article on "Present Ideals of American University Life" is the most noteworthy contribution to the September *Scribner*. It begins with a brief historical sketch of the changes which have supervened since such hesitant concessions were made to those "who look upon the mind in connection with the body" as were suggested by the trustees of Columbia College in the year 1853, in the shape of "parallel courses" which should in a measure meet the public demand for "practical and progressive knowledge." Summing up the whole movement thus far, he concludes that the fears of the opponents of the innovations have been disappointed, and that the "materialistic interests," once so dreaded, "have proved to the lovers of true literature and of human life the most inspiring of rivals, the friendliest of allies." His definition of the "highest business" of "the modern University" is "the organization and the advance of Learning," as contrasted with the older idea of "the training of individual minds." The chief illustrated articles are Lieut. Ridgely Hunt's "Steamship Lines of the World," and James Ricalton's paper on travel in Ceylon. The literary interest, narrowly considered, is catered to in Andrew Lang's rambling reminiscences of his reading as child and boy, and in Felix Moscheles's account of a pious pilgrimage to Browning's Italian home at Asolo. A still more specialized interest finds recognition in the adventures of "A China Hunter in New England."

—In the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* of August 15 Prof. Louis Weill makes a recent provincial "lendit," or athletic tournament, the text for some remarks on the question of the introduction and encouragement of athletic sports in the national *lycées* and colleges. To an American his discussion has an almost prehistoric flavor, so close to the rudiments of the matter is it confined; yet one can scent the beginnings of trouble in his question: "How, then, are we to reconcile the interests of hygiene and study?" Still, there can be little question that the tardy movement in France in the direction in which we have travelled such a distance, is one of good promise for both the physical and moral tone of French students. In the same number a Spanish correspondent gives an account of recent receptions and addresses in the Academy, the most striking utterance reported being Valera's semi-apology for the deficiencies of the Dictionary, that Sisyphean labor in which he and his colleagues are engaged. It is of this work that a witty Spanish writer says: "It has the gift of omitting the commonest words of educated speech in order to put in others which, not having been used for six hundred years, or being current only in the Philippine Islands or in Cuba, we, of course, are very anxious to employ."

—Apropos of Mr. Conway's letter regarding the neglected graveyard at Fredericksburg, Mr. Worthington C. Ford kindly permits us to print the following letter from the forthcoming volume (XI.) of his edition of Washington's *Writings*. It is addressed to Charles Carter:

MOUNT VERNON, 28 June, 1788.

DEAR SIR: When Mrs. Washington was at

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the Church in Fredericksburg she perceived the Tomb of her Father, the late John Dandridge, Esqr., to be much out of Sorts and being desirous to have it done up again, will you permit me to request the favor of you to engage a workman to do this, the cost of which I will remit as soon as you shall signify to me that the work is accomplished, and inform me of its amount. I would thank you, my dear Sir, for the ascertainment of this before hand. I have (not inclining to dispute Accounts) felt, in too many instances, the expansion of Tradesmen's consciences when no previous agreement has been made, ever to put it in their power to charge what they please in future. My best wishes, in which Mrs. Washington joins me, are tendered to Mrs. Carter. With much truth, &c. G. WASHINGTON.

—We have received from Mr. John Vance Cheney, librarian of the San Francisco Free Public Library, his new catalogue of 'Classified English Prose Fiction, including Translations and Juvenile Works,' filling 300 large octavo pages. Mr. Cheney has followed the example of the Boston Public Library, but has gone further, and has taken a most decided "step towards bringing the library into closer relationship with the schools," as well as towards making the innate childish love of "a story" lead to more solid and enduring reading. The classification is very varied, as into biographical stories, ghost stories, legal tales, musical novels, tales of the useful arts, etc.; but the geographical subdivisions are most insisted upon. Under each topic, as Animals, Astronomy, Aerial Voyages, there are references to serious works in the same library, carefully selected; under each country, references to books of travel and history; under the more important authors, references to biographies or critical appreciation of them. If we have here and there detected an obvious omission, it is to be set down, we have little doubt, to the absence of the work from the general collection. Countries, like Austria, England, or (most minutely) the United States, and famous towns, like Boston, have the appropriate novels arranged under them by periods, institutions (slavery), events (the civil war), etc. The contents of books of short stories are stated, and the Seaside Library (pocket edition) is catalogued in full. There are constant references to Poole's Index and to bibliographies. A single title, like Harriet Martineau's tales in illustration of political economy, often serves to introduce an important section, and it is surprising, in the sum, to see to how large a range of human knowledge a clue is here afforded. We must not overlook the rubric Books and Readings, with its lists of authors for boys, for girls, for little ones; and lists of good books for the young, not a few. But, above all, the rubric Literature deserves admiration for its orderly conspectus and full indications. It fills ten pages or twenty columns of fine print, and passes in review the literature of every nation. To crown the whole, there is a topical index. The proper complement of this almost ideal performance is found in Mr. W. M. Griswold's 'Descriptive Lists of Novels and Tales,' which, as far as they go, furnish a criterion between good and bad in the mass of fiction which Mr. Cheney has been at such pains to register. Both these guides should find a place in every public library, large or small.

— That Shakspere's Sonnets should be unknown in Italy, the land of the sonnet, sounds strange at first. Luigi De Marchi says, in the Milan *Perseveranza* of August 2, that they were "completamente ignoti" till last year, despite a long and accurate article upon them in the *Nuova Antologia* in 1878. A recent prose translation by Olivieri has drawn attention to them, and Signor De Marchi improves the opportunity to discourse on them at length in four successive issues of the *Perseveranza*. Besides relating their history, and analyzing the several groups, and touching on the question of the dedication, he offers several metrical translations, in which it is noticeable that he does not always follow the Shaksperian form (which he praises), and never abandons the female rhyme. He does not shun difficulties, for he begins with Sonnet xv. and essays cxxix. among the rest. The condensation of the Italian sonnet line, as the despair of English translators, is proverbial, yet in this instance of a reversed procedure it is worthy of remark how much more compact is Shakspere's line than his translator's. A signal example is (in Sonnet xxx.) the line

"And with old woes new wail my dear time's waste."

which De Marchi renders

"E de' giorni il lamento rinnovello."

—It is interesting to compare the capacity of the German and the Italian for coping with English metrically; but can we be sure that we are not comparing the poetic faculty of De Marchi and (say) Otto Gildemeister? We append the latter's masterly version of Sonnet xxix., "When, in disgrace with fortune and men's eyes," to that of the writer in the *Perseveranza*, which has no little merit, though the after part falls off:

Quando, inimico al mondo e alla fortuna,
Io piango, solo, il mio deserto stato,
E il muto cielo con voce importuna
Invoco, e fremo e maledico il fato;
E invidio ad altri sua verde speranza,
A quello la beltà, l'amico a questo,
All'uno il genio, all'altro la possanza,
E del mio meglio più scontento resto;
Avendo in tal pensier me stesso a sdegno,
A te penso.. ed allor l'anima affranta,
Come l'allodoletta al primo segno
Dell'alba, s'erge fino al cielo e canta.
Penso al tuo dolce amore e d'esser parmi
Ricco, che non vorrei nel re cangiarmi.

Wenn ich, verachtet von Geschick und Welt,
Einsam mein ausgestossenes Los beklage,
Und schrei' umsonst zum tauben Himmelszelt,
Und schau' mich an und flu·he meinem Tage,
Und wünsche, dass ich wie ein and'rer wäre,
So hoffnungsreich, so schön, befreundet so,
Und dieses Kunst und jenes Macht begehre,
Des eignen Köstlichsten am mind'sten froh:
Wenn so ich selbst mir fast verächtlich werde,
Da denk' ich dein, und dann steig' ich empor,
Der Morgenlerche gleich von dumpfer Erde,
Und singe Hymnen an des Himmels Thor:
Denn deiner Lieb' Andenken macht so reich,
Dass ich mein Los nicht tausch' um Kron' und Reich.

THE PHILOLOGICAL SOCIETY'S DICTIONARY.

A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Edited by Dr. James A. H. Murray. Vol. III., Part I. E—Every. By Henry Bradley, Hon. M.A. Oxon., President of the Philological Society. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1891.

MR. BRADLEY'S fortunate accession to the great work committed to Dr. Murray has resulted in the publication of his first instalment of a new volume in advance of the concluding parts of vol. ii, which it is now seen will comprise the letters C and D. The point thus reached leaves nearly or quite a third of the vocabulary disposed of, and insures the completion of the entire Dictionary within a reasonable period—not twice the seven years already consumed in printing, but even, it may be, at most, the nine which fulfil the present century. For it must be remembered that the etymological difficulties of the first three letters of the alphabet are out of proportion to those of the remainder; that the technical impediments to such an enterprise are massed at the beginning; and, finally, that Mr. Bradley added to Dr. Murray doubles the divisor and halves the quotient. At the present stage it becomes superfluous to indulge in criticism of the plan or its execution, for the Dictionary has taken its crease, as the French say. On the other hand, it would be a ridiculous affectation to "accept it as it is," with condescension for its shortcomings. The reviewer's path is clear, to assume the surpassing merit of it, and to help make it so widely known that no cultivated person or family will consent to be without it. We shall accordingly run over Mr. Bradley's 344 pages, and note briefly what we have found curious and interesting in them.

In the matter of pronunciation, Mr. Bradley calls attention to a natural embarrassment which he has experienced in indicating the pronunciation of words in his present domain which "are much better known in their written than in their spoken form." This should be true of a considerable part of the technical scientific terminology in which the E division abounds. There is also a two-fold usage in the case of "words beginning with unstressed *e* before two (written) consonants, like *effect*, *ellipse*, *entail*"; the rapid and familiar pronunciation being quite different from the careful, except when *e* stands before *s*, as in *essential* and *estate*. For the former series the careful sound has been preserved in the marking. The subject again comes up under the letter which opens the new volume, where we read of *ee* that "in *been* many persons sound it as [*i* in *sit*]; it has also this sound in *breeches*, *coffee*." This intimation of the Englishman's shibboleth perhaps requires to be supplemented with the statement that the majority of English-speaking persons now say "bin" instead of "bean." But Mr. Bradley's "many persons' was possibly meant to include Americans. The diphthong in *either* and *neither* is "variously sounded," we are told; like long *i* by most educated people in London, though Garrick pronounced long *e*, which is the prevailing American usage. In connection with the silent *e* final, we are informed that it "is omitted before flexional suffixes beginning with a vowel, as in *moving;* before *-able* it has been usually retained, . . . though many writers now prefer to omit it, especially when the verb is a polysyllable." What will our friends the spelling-reformers say to the uniform practice of this Dictionary in inserting, "in accordance with English analogies," the silent *e* after *dg*, as in *judgement*, etc.? They may trust the conservative habit of the printing-office to maintain its customary exceptions to this rule, which, for the rest, is a very convenient one.

The pronunciation of foreign words incessantly adopted into the language opens another chapter. With the spread of the higher education, no doubt it will be found true in the field of common nouns, as it is in that of proper names, that the tendency is to preserve the foreign sound—again to the distress of the spelling-reformers. Nevertheless, if *espalier*, which is quoted as far back as 1741, has now an English pronunciation, *envelope*, dating from 1707, still fluctuates between French and English; it was French in Walker's time (1791), and yet the spelling has been Anglicized for nearly two hundred years. *Entresol* is to be sounded "enter·sŏl," though we doubt if that be the American usage among architects; the quotation from a Builders' Dictionary of 1711 spells "entresole," betokening a long final and perhaps also a nasal initial syllable. *En passant* (1665), *entrepôt* (1721), *entrepreneur* (1878), and (generally) *encore* (1712 in its pseudo-French use) are sounded as in French; *environs* in the English way. *Eloign* is not allowed a different sound from *eloin*. It would have been a pretty thing to embalm in the

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quotations under this word the charge in the South Carolina ordinance of secession, against the free States, that they permitted the abolition societies to "eloign the property of the citizens of other States"—*videlicet*, run off slaves. This odd euphemism revealed the fact that it was a lawyer (Mr. Memminger) who drafted the ordinance.

Prefixes and suffixes are, as usual, most minutely accounted for—*en-* in five columns, *-er* in two and a half. *Em-*, *im-*, and *en-* are treated as identical, and the alphabetical place of any given word beginning thus is determined by the most common form. The discordant usage in the case of *-ence* and *-ance* is remarked, while, with respect to the parallel ending *-ency*, discrimination is made in these terms: "When the same word exists in both the *-ence* and the *-ency* forms, the tendency is (where the sense of the verbal etymon permits) to restrict the former to action or process (*i. e.*, to connect its meaning rather with that of the verb than with that of the adjective), while the latter is used to express quality." Under *-ed* a world of useless and heated discussion is squelched in these words: "The suffix is now added without restriction to any substantive from which it is desired to form an adjective with the sense 'possessing, provided with, characterized by' (something). . . . (Groundless objections have been made to the use of such words by writers ignorant of the history of the language; see quot.)" The quotations are from Johnson, who grieved over Gray's use of *honied*; and from Coleridge, who wrote: "I regret to see that vile and barbarous vocable, *talented*. . . . The formation of a participle passive from a noun is a license that nothing but a very peculiar felicity can excuse."

The "subordinate words" and "special combinations" cut a great figure here, as do the phrases and proverbial expressions which are appropriately recorded. *Ear* is very fertile in all these; so are *egg* and *earth*; and *end* (sb.) requires nearly seven columns for itself—it is "End *und kein Ende*." We miss here *end-man* of our negro minstrels, though the Ethiopian (serenader) is admitted. And, speaking of Americanisms, it seems that our British cousins meekly accepted *eventuate* from us. Jay Gould is cited as using the verb *engineer* coupled with "a job" (London *Standard*, December 28, 1882, to be precise). We doubt if many more instances could be cited of *escape* ("U. S., An escaped person, a fugitive") than the Philadelphia *Record*, No. 3464, p. 4, 1881. We should incline to think it a freak of the reporter, and that we have, therefore, in this case, an instance, not of usage, but of fruitless experiments in the development of language. The distinction is one which must be constantly borne in mind in studying the 'New Dictionary.' The Australians, it appears, have evolved *escapee*. Mr. Lowell is cited for the New England expression, "about east." That this quarter of the compass has, meteorologically, the same character for the mother country and for her offspring on the Atlantic seaboard, is observed under *east wind:* "In England and New England proverbially bleak, unpleasant, and injurious to health." It is the English custom to put *esquire* last (as, Tom Taylor, of the Inner Temple, Esquire); the Scotch, like the American, is to put it immediately after the name. The Scotch are responsible for the recent literary revival of the word *enow*, which was used as the plural of *enough* in standard English even in Johnson's time. The English (or at least the *Saturday Review*) apply the term *Ebenezer* contemptuously to dissenting chapels; the New Dictionary does not take cognizance of the Yankee idiom, "to get his Ebenezer up," in the sense of "to get his dander up," "to get mad." *Euchre* is set down as "a game at cards, of American origin," and the play is succinctly described; but the word is "of uncertain etymology," and is not traceable to the German, to which the term *bower* belongs. Having formerly been spelt *uker*, *yuker*, *eucre*, it may, the guess is hazarded, have sprung from the Spanish-American *ser yuca*, "to be cock of the walk." Our *everglade* also baffles inquiry as to its derivation. *Egg-nogg*, again, is shown by the citations to be of American origin, and its ingredients are indicated. An American invention, the *Eozoon Canadense*, "a supposed genus of foraminifers or rhizopods, at one time regarded as the earliest-known animal," is "now believed to be of inorganic origin."

What may not be learned in a Dictionary in which the word *enter* fills six columns, the word *even* (in all the parts of speech) ten? We write *encyclopædia* oftener than *encyclopedia* because of the Latin titles of books of this class, like the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' Milton, in "L'Allegro," perhaps took *eglantine* for the honeysuckle. *Elfin* was invented by Spenser in 1596. Brougham it was, rather than Burke, who dubbed the press the "fourth *estate*." Pepys (1668) wrote "somebody *else's*," and did not trouble himself with the pedagogical refinement, "somebody's else." The first quotation under *elephant* (of whose "ultimate etymology nothing is really known," and it may be as fantastic as that of *mammoth*) is of 1300; the figurative use of "white elephant" as "a burdensome possession" finds here no earlier illustration than 1883, which is, of course, much too late. Nor is the shorter usage in the like sense, "he has an elephant on his hands," recorded, as it is in the 'Century Dictionary.' The rise and fall of words and of meanings it is the great function of the 'New Dictionary' to mark with all possible precision. The oldest of the *electro-* compounds, *electrometer*, goes back to 1749; *electrophore* and *electrophorus* date from 1778. All the rest, without exception, belong to the present century, and especially from the time of Faraday (say 1830). *Ensilage* is postdated 1881. No earlier quotation for *editor* (of a journal) than 1803 is given; the *Spectator* uses the substantive *editorial* in quotation marks in 1864, and the *Pall Mall* without in 1887. *Enclave* becomes familiar in 1868. *Eating room* (1613) is quite obsolete; but *eating-house* (1440) has held its own. So has *eavesdropper* (1482). *Economy* (1530) begets *political economy* (1767); but *economically*, as the adverb of the latter expression, is first credited to Mr. Frederick Law Olmsted in 1856. *Egotism* is as old as 1714, and *egoism* as 1722; the differentiation of them as 'self-conceit' and 'selfishness' respectively is shown not to be firmly established. The current socio-scientific use of *environment* is first found in Carlyle (1827).

It would be easy to protract these comments, but space forbids, and Dr. Murray will presently give us a fresh occasion to take the floor.

KEARY'S VIKINGS IN WESTERN CHRISTENDOM.

The Vikings in Western Christendom, A. D. 789 to A. D. 888. By C. F. Keary, M.A., F.S.A. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1891.

MR. KEARY'S history, as the title indicates, is not a full record of the expeditions of the Northmen down among the Christian nations of the West, which, from first to last, stretched themselves over a space of three centuries, but limits itself to the century that begins the period. The book, however, is really the history of Western Europe during the latter part of the eighth century and nearly the whole of the ninth. Not only are the incursions of the northern pirates during this time chronicled in all their causes and bearings, but the religion and ethics, politics and social conditions, of nearly all contemporaneous Europe are taken into account as well. The work is, accordingly, a most ambitious one, since from not a few points of view this is an extremely difficult period to observe accurately in detail. The present plan has succeeded none the less in giving an intelligible and in the main orderly impression of this time of apparently almost hopeless confusion. There are, however, one or two faults of construction. To gain in breadth of treatment, the author has in some places overweighted the book by material that might better have been omitted. It is safe, for instance, to assume at the present time a fundamental knowledge, at least, of Teutonic antiquities, and this failing, there are available accounts elsewhere from the nature of the case much more exhaustive than that contained in the chapters, the first and second, on "Heathendom" and "The Creed of Heathen Germany," which, with the third chapter on "Christendom," might for every purpose here have been disposed of in a few well-placed paragraphs; and "The Creed of Christendom," the last chapter in the book, after it has logically reached its end, had better have been omitted. It is not meant, in either instance, that the work is ill-considered or badly done. The mythology usually follows Rydberg, and assumes, accordingly, a radical and not always defensible standpoint. Some of its conclusions are, nevertheless, as astute as modern criticism has proved them to be true. Such a one, for instance, occurs on page 75, where the author says: "It is evident that many parts of the Eddaic mythology, instead of being newly invented, have decayed from their primitive condition." The sentence deserves to be quoted, since it embodies in a nutshell the whole present advanced state of criticism of the Teutonic mythology as it is contained in the Eddas; and it might be supplemented by not a few others as pertinent.

The fundamental purpose of the book is to tell the story of the successive incursions of the Vikings, and to trace the track of devastation that followed like a wake wherever their ships had been. In the year beginning the period, 787, according to the 'Anglo-Saxon Chronicle,' three ships appeared in a harbor of the Dorset coast manned by "northern men," who killed the port reeve and sailed away again. It was an occurrence in itself unimportant, and only in the light of subsequent events would it apparently have been deemed worthy of special mention at all, for the accompanying remark that these were the "first ships of the Danish men that sought the English land" was manifestly written only when the true significance of the scourge had become apparent. So far as we have record, only once before, early in the sixth century, had Western Europe seen these Northern pirates, but they were now soon to become a constant menace to life and property over its whole length and breadth. The limit of the period here assumed, 888, the year of the division of the Frankish Empire, is the last appearance of the Northmen before the walls of Paris. It marks, according to the author, a change in their mode of warfare, in that hereafter their depredations are confined to the open country. It is, too, the first sign of a decline of the wave of conquest, and,

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though the invaders by no means disappear from the scene, nor are their ravages for a long time sensibly ameliorated, the great movement from the North toward the West had apparently none the less reached its extreme height.

The period, as limited by the author, includes the expeditions of Godfried and Sigfried on the Continent and the Great Army in England, parts of which long before the close of the period had been systematically occupied by the Northmen. The author is himself apparently not quite sure of his division. A truer one is pointed out by Freeman in his 'Norman Conquest,' where three periods of invasion are made for England: a first period of simple plunder, from the beginning in 787 to 855, the first winter spent on English soil; a second period of local settlement, to 897; and a third, final period of political conquest. That such a succession of events is not accidental is shown by the almost exact analogy of the Teutonic occupation of England itself. The experiences of that earlier time were repeated now. In the same way this new swarm of Teutons gradually settled down upon the land they had first plundered and burned; and though this second time the conquest was not carried to such a point of ultimate dispossession, the difference between it and the first in this respect was only in degree. The same general course of events is traceable as distinctly, again, in Ireland and on the Continent, although in this latter instance the last stage fails, as there was no such political conquest even in attempt as is seen in England, and dates, from the very nature of the case, where so many diverse causes were at work, do not necessarily at all closely coincide. The only point that it is intended here to make is the existence of distinct periods in the history of the Vikings in the West. The author himself recognizes such a first period when he says the middle of the ninth century is about the time when the Vikings cease to be summer visitors only, but begin to pass whole years in the enemy's territory. Any other date, however, than that chosen might with equal propriety have been taken for the limit of his narrative. It is rather a pity, since he must have had the material at hand, that he could not have given us the history, from first to last, of the Vikings in Western Christendom without limitation of time.

Every historic people, says the author in his preface, has its age of *Sturm und Drang*. The Viking Age was for the whole Scandinavian people such a period. Within it, and only through storm and stress, formative influences were worked out that resulted in their separation into distinct nationalities at home, and made them abroad, for the first time, an active factor in European history. Of the earliest part of the period we have no authentic records from Scandinavian sources; but as horde after horde poured out of this *vagina nationum*, as Jordanes once called it, and swarmed over Western Europe, they are almost constantly a subject for chronicle, however scant, in the lands they attack. It is only later on that these alien records are gradually supplemented by the Sagas, which, by and by, furnish extended and less objective historical material.

This great popular movement, in the last quarter of the eighth century, was not confined to any one part of Scandinavia. In the earliest time it is impossible to distinguish nationalities, which, in point of fact, were not at all sharply defined, and no appreciable differentiation had as yet affected the language, which was at this time, to all intents and purposes, common over all Scandinavian territory. Later, when the sporadic voyages had grown into an established order of things, it is easy to see that the point of attack was determined to some extent by geographical location. The Swedes, apparently from the first, turned their attention to the East, and later on a Swedish dynasty is enthroned in Russia. Swedish soldiers of fortune form the celebrated Varingian Guard at the Byzantine Court, and piratical expeditions are made down on that side of the world into the Ægean. It was the Danes and Norsemen, then, who were left to harry the countries of western Europe; and as the result of their position it is the Norsemen, when we can distinguish them, who especially have taken the more northern countries of Ireland, Scotland, the Hebrides, and the Orkneys for the scene of their operations, while the Danes are principally occupied in the east and south of England. On the Continent, Danes and Norsemen together, direct from their homes in the north or by way of the British Isles, are usually only distinguishable as Northmen. Mr. Keary imagines the Danes to have been in the majority, not only in England, but in Continental Europe as well. The point, however, that he makes on page 192, that "the traces of Norse language in Ireland and Scotland are much more numerous than the traces of Danish," is wholly a misapprehension, for there had been as yet, as has been indicated, no differentiation in the common parent Scandinavian. This is a favorite *crux* of the author's, and he recurs to it again and again, in his, from this point of view, utterly futile attempts to prove the distinct nationality of the Northmen from the evidence of place names left behind them.

In the face of a popular movement of the character of the one we are considering, so widespread that it was participated in by a whole race, it is of paramount importance to understand the causes and conditions that led to it. The first Viking voyages were undertaken solely for the sake of plunder. The author sees this clearly enough, too, in that he states that "on the whole they were only plundering expeditions, with scarcely any other conscious object than the amassing of treasure." There were, of course, causes at work at home thus to direct attention abroad. Foremost among these was the poverty of the North as compared with the rest of Europe, and its overpopulation. A severe climate and a stern struggle for very existence had made the Northmen as a race hardy, defiant, and indifferent to danger. They were the best navigators of their time and the fiercest fighters, upon whom Christianity had not as yet exercised its humanizing influence. It is no wonder that when the news of easy victory over the rich and less active nations of the South was brought back by Viking ships loaded with plunder, the whole North should be fanned into a fire that needed but little encouragement to become all-consuming. Last of all the causes, and to a great extent purely incidental, was the religious element involved. One gets an idea from Mr. Keary's book, although it is nowhere directly formulated, and, indeed, the contrary is once distinctly expressed, that here was a struggle of creed—a conscious attack of heathenism upon Christianity. There is evidence that the Northmen both hated the new religion for its innovations and despised it for its effeminacy, and they apparently left unused no opportunity that incidentally presented itself to prove their animosity; but their attacks upon Christendom were in no sense because it was Christendom. The monasteries and churches that were so frequently the objects of pillage, from Lindisfarne and Jarrow down, were the great storehouses of treasure and usually incapable of any but a weak defence. In a period a little later, agrarian difficulties both in Norway and Denmark, the absorption of the petty kings, and the loss of allodial rights, furnished causes as far-reaching as any for the settlement and conquest of lands outside of Scandinavia.

The first wintering in Ireland, according to the dates given by the author, was in 835; in Frisia, the Vikings had before that time often wintered; in France, they stayed for the first time in 843; in England, on the Island of Thanet, in 851. At first they chose, almost uniformly, some island close to the mainland for their permanent quarters, and notably at the mouths of the largest rivers, where they could have the sea upon one side and a highway up into the land on the other. Although so often successful, particularly in their first attacks, these pirates who were now beginning to settle down upon the land did not, by any means, always have things their own way. In England they met with their first decisive reverses in 851, and the tables were so far turned upon them that for the first time on record they were defeated on the sea and nine of their ships were captured. But in spite of temporary set-backs, often, no doubt, because of them, they continued to come in increasing numbers, and to widen the scene of their operations. In the northern islands and in Ireland they had acquired a firm footing. London itself had once been plundered; and they had not only ravaged almost the whole Saxon and Frisian coast, but had already sailed, besides, up the great rivers of France, the Seine, the Loire, and the Garonne, and had plundered the whole coast of Spain as far as the Pillars of Hercules. In place of isolated ships there was now concerted action. In the spring of 845, a fleet of no less than 600 sail appeared off Hamburg, which was taken within twenty-four hours. This same year, a fleet of 120 ships made its way, almost unopposed, up the Seine to Paris, which was pillaged and burned. In 851 (these dates are the author's), still another fleet, of 350 sail, set out from Frisia for the English coast, ruined London, and killed the Mercian king. In 859, a fleet of seventy Northern vessels sailed, for the first time in history, down into the unknown waters of the Mediterranean. Before they returned they had plundered the Spanish coast, both western and eastern, ravaged the Balearic Isles, attacked Pampeluna and Narbonne, and ended by starting out for Rome itself. The capture of Luna by mistake for Rome belongs, perhaps, to tradition more than to sober history.

It is impossible here to trace further the career of the Northern Vikings. The separate expeditions and their connection with each other, from the beginning to the end of the period that he has selected, Mr. Keary follows out as much in detail as available material will allow; and to the story that, with unquestioned persistence, he has thus pieced together, the reader may be safely referred for an interesting and unvarnished record of one of the most stirring episodes in the whole history of the Germanic people. The book leaves the Northmen still in the midst of their "storm and stress," though with no little definite accomplishment already behind them. Iceland and the Faroes had received a permanent Scandinavian population. Shetland, the Orkneys, and the Hebrides were also Scandinavian, as was a part of Ireland, while in England the "Danes" were ruling in Yorkshire, East Anglia, and a part of the

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Marchland. On the Continent they were still engaged, in various places, in their old business of pillage or in buying a release from it with exorbitant ransom. From Paris, in the very year of the close of the book, 888, such blackmail had just been extorted, after a fierce but ineffectual siege of the city, by an army that, according to Abbo, the only authority we have, at first had numbered, afloat and ashore, 30,000 or 40,000 men! The result of the Viking raids upon the countries they despoiled is also considered in the last chapters of Mr. Keary's book. They were a scourge dreadful beyond all imagination; yet ultimately the infusion of sturdy blood which they brought as settlers into the less active population of the West, showed its result in the characteristics that, to no small extent, have enabled the nations with whom they amalgamated to play so important a part in the political history of Europe. And although at the time the attacks of the Northmen apparently tended only to dismemberment and the destruction of all social stability, both in England and on the Continent they were one of the most pronounced and unmistakable factors of national unification.

THE LEGAL CONDITION OF THE JEWS IN RUSSIA.

La Situation Légale des Israélites en Russie. Par Nicolas de Gradowsky, conseill r d'état. Tome premier. Du Règne du Czar Alexis Michaïlovitch au Règne du Czar Nicolas Ier. Traduit du Russe. Paris: Léopold Cerf. 1890. Pp. viii, 348. 8vo.

THE Jewish question in Russia is not a phenomenon of recent origin; some of its most salient features have existed for more than a century. Hence the present anti-Semitic movement cannot be fully comprehended without a careful consideration of the past, without a thorough examination of the origin of Jewish disabilities in Russia. Such an examination clearly reveals the fatuity of Russia's present policy regarding the Jews—her blind neglect of the lessons taught by her own history.

De Gradowsky's work aims to give a detailed account of the early legislation concerning the Jews down to the end of the reign of Nicholas I. (1855), and thus shows how most of the present restrictive laws came into existence. Volume i extends to the year 1825. The author seems to be quite impartial, and draws his material from excellent sources, relying mainly on the complete collection of Russian laws and on official reports of commissions, etc. The chief defect of the work is a tendency towards repetition and prolixity. The same argument is sometimes repeated in almost the same words; and much space is devoted to mere episodes in the history of the Russian Jews, which, though interesting and illustrative of Russia's general policy, often divert the mind of the reader from the main current of legislation.

There were, according to De Gradowsky, Jewish colonies in South Russia long before the Slavs accepted Christianity. These Israelites came from the countries of the Chersonese and from the Greek colonies of the Crimea. They were harassed by no restrictions, and mingled freely with the Slavs, speaking the Slavic language and adopting Slavic names. This state of things continued until the second half of the seventeenth century, when, under the Emperors Alexis and Theodore, certain Polish territories were annexed to Russia. In these conquered districts there were many Jews, whose privileges had been restricted since the fifteenth century. In this period, under Alexis, we meet with the first legislation against the Jews, but in a very mild form; in fact, the religious zeal of the Government, at this time, was directed as much against Christian dissenters as against Jews. The latter were allowed to reside anywhere in Russia, even in Moscow. The racy anecdotes that are related concerning Peter the Great's hostility to the Jews, are untrustworthy. Their status underwent no change during his reign; they were still tolerated in Russia.

Under the three Empresses, Catherine I., Anne, and Elizabeth (1725 1762), the Jews were more rigorously dealt with. Expulsion edicts were issued in 1727, 1740, and 1742. But these were, to a large extent, evaded with the connivance of the Russian people. Many Jews continued to live in Little Russia, as well as in the districts conquered from Poland, and they even entered Great Russia to carry on trade. Moreover, these rigorous measures were so detrimental to commerce that the Government found it necessary to make a new law permitting the Israelites to visit Russian fairs. The main cause of the expulsion edicts of this period was the religious zeal of the three Empresses, coupled with general prejudice against the Jews.

The reign of Catherine II. (1762–1796) is of great importance in the history of anti-Semitic legislation. She began by issuing a decree of expulsion in 1762; but in 1769 she allowed Jews to reside in New Russia. In 1772, by the annexation of a large part of Poland (*i. e.*, White Russia), the Jewish population of the Muscovite Empire was greatly increased, and the real foundation of the Russian-Jewish question was laid. Catherine ordered that all the conquered people, including the Jews, should be treated with toleration, and that their rights should be observed. The Jews thus became naturalized Russian subjects, whereas, before 1772, they had not been so regarded, and hence could be expelled with impunity. Catherine, in fact, seemed disposed to give them all the rights of other Russian subjects. But two ukases of 1791 and 1794 indicated a change of policy. That of 1794 clearly showed that it was the intention of the Government to confine the Jews' right of residence to certain provinces in the west and southwest of Russia, and at the same time enacted that Jews must pay double taxes. This law really marks the origin of the present Pale of Settlement, which is the most irksome of all existing Jewish disabilities, and has exerted a most injurious influence upon the welfare of the Israelites. The double tax, which became a terrible burden to them, was not abolished until 1835. Thus the legislation of Catherine II., by limiting the right of domicile and by giving the Jews an exceptional status, created the Jewish question. These restrictions were due to the initiative of the Senate and local authorities, and were not in accord with the general principles of government laid down by Catherine herself.

Passing over the reign of Paul I., which is of little importance in the history of the Jews, we come to the legislation of Alexander I. (1801–1825). In 1802 a commission was appointed *to investigate the condition of the Israelites.* In 1804 the commission presented an extensive project of reform, which was accepted by the Czar. The most important features of this new legislation relate to the education, occupation, and residence of the Jews. They were admitted to the public schools and universities; they were offered some inducements (reduction of taxes, etc.), to turn their attention to agricultural and industrial pursuits; and they were forbidden to carry on trade in villages or rural districts. But this project of reform did not improve their condition. The public schools were too few to be of much use; and, in most cases, the Israelites were so ground down by taxation that they could not afford to educate their children. Hence their ignorance, isolation, and devotion to the Talmud remained unchanged. Nor did the law of 1804 induce many of them to substitute agriculture for trade. Little land was offered to them for this purpose; and those who might have been tempted to devote themselves to husbandry, had not the means to emigrate to the districts in which the land offered by the Government was situated. The attempt to expel the Jewish tradesmen from villages and rural districts also failed. This change of residence was to be made within three years n some provinces, in others within four years. The village authorities petitioned against the execution of the law; and the migration to the cities was postponed in 1807, and again in 1809. In the latter year a commission was appointed to study the question. In 1812 it reported against the enforced migration, on the ground that the cities could not support such an influx of new inhabitants, that the Jews were helpful, not harmful, to the prosperity of the peasantry, and that it was unjust to ascribe to the former the drunkenness of the latter, as the commission of 1802 had done. This report virtually stopped the execution of the law of expulsion, which, however, was allowed to hang over the heads of the Jews until 1835, when it was repealed.

Besides the legislation of 1804, the most important anti-Semitic laws of Alexander I.'s reign were those of 1820 and 1825, which, in a somewhat modified form, are still in force. In 1820 the Jews were forbidden to hire Christian servants, for fear that the former might make proselytes of the latter. In 1825 an edict was issued which made it unlawful for the Jews to dwell within fifty versts of the frontier. The main reason assigned for this prohibition was the Jews' proclivity to smuggle goods over the frontiers in order to evade the payment of duties. This law applied, however, only to Jews renting houses, shops, etc., in distinction from those who occupied property of their own. The following is an extract from De Gradowsky's commentary (pp. 329-332) on this law of 1825:

"The sudden expulsion of the Israelites residing in the districts adjoining the frontier could not have good results. On the one hand, it deprived the landed proprietors of revenues which they derived from the renting of their property; and, on the other hand, it threatened the Israelites with complete ruin by depriving a considerable number of them of their movables, without any plausible motive, and without any wrong on their part. . . . It should have been remembered that the general misery prevailing in the centres where the Jews were crowded together, was the principal cause that led them to establish themselves in the districts near the frontier. . . . The expulsion could only augment the number of Israelites in the localities in which they were tolerated, and consequently would increase still more the proletariat, which in those localities was already considerable. . . . Thus the measure in question was justifiable neither from the point of view of practical utility nor from the point of view of justice and equity. . . . It is a well-known fact that the proclivity to smuggle exists in all countries among the inhabitants living near the frontier, without distinction of race or creed. . . . The imperial treasury could gain nothing by these measures unless it reorganized the corps of custom-house officers. The only ones who gained by the new law were the smugglers, who were thus relieved of the competition of the Israelites, and hence could sell their wares at a higher price."

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This meagre outline of the first volume of De Gradowsky's book will scarcely give an adequate idea of its contents, as the author devotes much space to a consideration of the causes and effects of the anti-Semitic legislation down to 1825. Many pages of his work might be cited *verbatim* as strong arguments against Russia's treatment of the Jews at the present day. The anti-Semitic policy of Alexander III. is governed by the same principles, or lack of principles, as that of Alexander I.; the arguments against the latter apply with increased force against the former. The translation of De Gradowsky's book is particularly welcome, because it is the first treatise, accessible to the nations of Europe and America, that gives a detailed account of the early history of the Jews in Russia, and hence affords a clear insight into the origin of the Russian anti-Semitic movement.

Life of Jane Welsh Carlyle. By Mrs. Alexander Ireland. New York: Charles L. Webster & Co. 1891.

To write acceptably about the domestic life of a woman in every way worthy of biographical celebrity, who was for forty of her sixty-five years the wife of one whose friend and literary executor could write of him, "If matters went well with himself, it never occurred to him that they could be going ill with any one else," requires, even though that one be a literary colossus, no small measure of self-restraint on the part of the writer. Such self-restraint, together with a generous comprehension of two uniquely constituted persons, Mrs. Ireland has shown. The lovely and somewhat caustic heiress, known to the world through Mr. Ritchie's collection of 'Early Letters,' changed much during her married life. The Carlyle who at first wrote of a semi-invalid, "Jane is far heartier now that she has got to work—to bake," was in effect the same Carlyle who, later, in the small house in Cheyne Row, where hero-worshippers now gaze at the medallion in the front, preferred to eat his dyspeptic dinners by himself.

Mrs. Ireland thinks, and her readers will be inclined to agree with her, that "the causes which militated most strongly against her happiness" were to be found in Mrs. Carlyle's own complicated nature, rather than in circumstances. "A cross between John Knox and a gypsy"—both were among her ancestors—her intense temperament would of necessity have brought her suffering, and very likely ill health, even if domestic drudgery had not been ruthlessly exacted of her. The exaggeration, the highly colored sense of fact, that appear in every line of her brilliant letters, are an index to the refracting power of her mind. Only a distortion of mental vision could have blinded so clever a woman to the real meaning of Carlyle's attitude in the "adventure" that came to no happy conclusion for either. He had made it clear enough during their engagement that, for him, contemplation of the "Ewig-weibliche" failing to suffice, the only happy union would be with a woman of the type he so admired in his laborious, kindly, pipe-smoking mother.

There can be little doubt that ambition, always in the case of "Jeannie" Welsh of a noble kind, was a strong motive in her marriage. But it was not in her nature to be satisfied with vicarious greatness. Hence the tragedy to her to realize that she was not to be a companion to Carlyle; that the "spirit of fire" and "towering intellect," which were to command her, could only work in solitary throes, of which the manifestations to her were chiefly of the splenetic sort which he himself describes in his well-known style of invective. The paradox of the Carlyles' relationship is the tone of their letters. No sooner had absence, as Mrs. Ireland expresses it, "removed the inexorable difficulties of personal contact," than all the feeling each might have had for the other, and had not, rushed to their pens in torrents of such words as only they could command. In spite of the witness of her many friends to her rare attractiveness, her power of sympathy, her courage, and her witty speech, one is tempted to believe that the best of Mrs. Carlyle was, after all, in her pen. At least, any one who has been disposed to draw this conclusion from Mr. Froude's and the several memorial volumes, will find nothing to contradict it in Mrs. Ireland's excellent summary, nor in the three or four hitherto unpublished letters it contains.

A History of Chemistry, from Earliest Times to the Present Day. By Ernst von Meyer. Translated by George MacGowan. Macmillan & Co. 1891. 8vo.

THE first systematic work on the history of chemistry which deserves special notice is that of Hermann Kopp, which began to appear in 1843 and was concluded in 1846. Two supplementary works by the same author, containing the more recent history of the science, have since appeared. These are now far behind the times. Hoefer's 'Histoire de la Chimie' is an inferior work, though not without value. Minor portions of the subject have been treated separately by various writers, but a good and at least tolerably complete résumé of the history of modern chemistry was still needed. Dr. von Meyer's work is intended to supply this want. In his own words, he has endeavored to give "a fair synopsis of theories and facts which constitute the foundation of chemistry as we now know it."

The work begins with a good and, for most readers, sufficiently extended account of the chemical knowledge of the ancients and of the age of alchemy. A certain glamour of romance with which this last has been invested disappears under the passionless analysis of the historian, and there remains only a record of charlatanry and sordid motives, together with a beautiful theory lacking a philosophic basis, but destined to reappear in the light of modern science. The history of the iatrochemical period follows, in which chemistry and medicine were held to be mutually dependent and interacting, and is not less interesting than that of alchemy as to detail, while it presents a greater number of phases of thought. The sketches of Paracelsus—a charlatan of genius—Libavius, Van Helmont, and, later, of Agricola and Glauber, are full of interest. Next comes the history of the phlogistic period, which is made to extend from Boyle to Lavoisier, inclusive. The account of this period is, on the whole, excellent, and does not require special analysis. We think, however, that Odling's paper on the element of truth in the doctrine of phlogiston deserved notice.

Our author gives full credit for the discovery of oxygen to Priestley, to whom it unquestionably belongs, French historians to the contrary notwithstanding. Yet Priestley died a defender of the doctrine of phlogiston, and modern chemistry began with Lavoisier. This part of the work is well and clearly written, and is sufficiently full. It gives a general view of the progress of the science from Lavoisier to the present time, treating the subject mainly by means of notices of the work of different chemists. Short biographies of some of them are given in foot-notes. The special history of the various branches of chemistry is then taken up. In that of inorganic chemistry we miss the firm grasp which comes from fulness of knowledge. Much important work is passed over, and papers of trivial value are sometimes noticed, as if by way of compliment. The special history of organic chemistry is much better, the author standing upon his own ground. Within the last few years physical chemistry has attained an extraordinary development so as to require a special journal, and many chemists are working in this field alone. The sections of Dr. von Meyer's work which relate to the different subdivisions of the new science are far too brief, even for a work which does not profess to be more than a synopsis. Mineralogical chemistry comes next, and is sufficiently treated. The section on agricultural chemistry is less to be praised. It is rather a surprise to find the experiments of Lawes and Gilbert passed over without notice, while more than justice is done to Liebig's work. Physiological chemistry comes next, with a number of subdivisions which must be regarded as fairly well handled. We note, however, as a remarkable omission, the absence of any allusion to the action of bacteria in the development of ptomaines, now generally regarded as direct causes of disease. The history of technical chemistry during the last hundred years follows. It is not easy to condense such a subject and still give necessary details, but the author has been quite successful.

The work closes with a very interesting account of the growth of chemical instruction in the nineteenth century, especially in Germany, and, finally, with brief notices of some points in chemical literature. All chemists will heartily agree with the author's remarks on the disappearance of criticism from the science. He might have added that the editing of the yearly reports is now left, to a great extent, to a very inferior class of chemists, who not only have no profound acquaintance with the science, but who admit almost everything without regard to what has been done before upon the same subjects.

Dr. von Meyer's work is, upon the whole, a really valuable addition to scientific literature. It is written in a spirit of entire fairness, and rarely claims for German chemists more than is justly their due—though chemistry is now a German science.

Études sur les Origines de l'Episcopat. La valeur du témoinage d'Ignace d'Antioche. Par Jean Réville. Paris: Leroux. 1891.

IN this fragment, reprinted from the *Revue de l'Histoire des Religions*, the author draws his own conclusions from the investigations of Zahn and Lightfoot upon the authenticity of the seven letters of Ignatius of Antioch. As to the fact of authenticity he is quite in accord with both these writers; but in his deductions therefrom he makes a distinctly new departure. The great interest taken by students of Church history in the discussion arose from the conviction that if these letters were written in the first quarter of the second century, the whole Protestant theory as to the antiquity of the episcopate must be revised. This conviction rested upon the view that the episcopal powers described by the alleged Ignatius were such as really existed as a rule in the Church of the author's day, and that the nature of the episcopate then must have been very much what it was later. M. Réville does not accept this view. He regards the exaltation of the

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episcopate by Ignatius as rather an exhortation towards an ideal of what it ought to be than as a simple reflection of what it actually was. He supports his position by the entire absence of such lofty conceptions in the contemporary literature, and reminds us that the function of the bi hop at the time was far narrower than it became later—hardly more, in fact, than the headship of a single city church. The authenticity of the text, therefore, so far from invalidating the conclusion as to the later origin of the episcopate in the catholic sense, is quite in harmony with it.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baxter, Sylvester. The Cruise of a Land-Yacht. Boston: The Authors' Mutual Publishing Co.
Black, William. Donald Ross of Heimra. Harper & Bros. $1.25.
Carlyle, T. Social Writings. New York: The Humboldt Publishing Co. 2 vols. 50 cents.
Crommelin, May. The Freaks of Lady Fortune. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Faber, Christine. A Chivalrous Deed. New York: P. J. Kenedy.
Fabian Essays in Socialism. New York: The Humboldt Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Filon, Augustin. L'Elève de Garrick. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Harland, Marion. Miriam. New York: G. W. Dillingham. 25 cents.
Heine, H. Florentine Nights, etc. John W. Lovell Co.
Hibbard, George A. Iduna, and Other Stories. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Hochheimer, Lewis. The Custody of Infants. 2d ed. Baltimore: Harold B. Scrimger.
Janvier, Thomas. The Uncle of an Angel, and Other Stories. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Jastrow, J. Geschichte des deutschen Einheitstraumes und seiner Erfüllung. Vierte Auflage. Berlin: Allgemeiner Verein für Deutsche Litteratur.
Jeaffreson, C. H., and Boensel, O. English Dialogues with Phonetic Transcriptions. Hamburg: G. Fritzsche.
Kipling, Rudyard. Life's Handicap. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Kramer, J. W. The Right Road; A Hand-Book for Parents and Teachers. Thomas Whittaker. $1.25.
Lee, F. W. William Morris, Poet, Artist, Socialist. New York: The Humboldt Publishing Co. 75 cents.
Lightfoot, Rev. J. B. Sermons Preached on Special Occasions. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Ludlow, Rev. J. M. A King of Tyre. Harper & Bros.
Marx, Karl. Capital. New York: The Humboldt Publishing Co. $1.75.
Mill, J. S. Socialism. New York: The Humboldt Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Maurice, R. S. Albany Stark's Revenge. St. Paul: The Price-McGill Co. 50 cents.
Meunier, Stanislas. Le Roman du Mont St. Michel. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Moulin, Dr. C. W. M. Sprains: Their Consequences and Treatment. William Wood & Co.
Ochorowicz, Prof. J. Mental Suggestion. New York: The Humboldt Publishing Co. $2.
Owen, W. C. The Economics of Herbert Spencer. New York: The Humboldt Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Palgrave, R. H. I. Dictionary of Political Economy. First Part. Abatement—Bede. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Powell, E. P. Liberty and Life. 2d ed. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Powers, H. N. Lyrics of the Hudson. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 75 cents.
Riley, James W. Old-fashioned Roses. 2d ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Rogers, J. E. T. Six Centuries of Work and Wages. Abridged. New York: The Humboldt Publishing Co 25 cents.
Ruskin, John. "A Joy For Ever." New York: Charles E. Merrill & Co. $1.25.
Scott, J. W. Anita, or the Spectre of a Snow-Storm. New York: G. W. Dillingham.
Seelye, Julius H. Duty: A Book for Schools. Boston Ginn & Co. 30 cents.
Sharp, Amy. Victorian Poets. London: Methuen & Co.
Stewart, S. T. Plane and Solid Geometry. American Book Co. $1.12.
Tales for a Stormy Night. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 50 cents.
Talleyrand, Prince de. Memoirs. Vol. III. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50.

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